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MANUAL OF GOOD ENGLISH

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MANUAL OF

GOOD ENGLISH

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PREFACE

THE present tendency in the teaching of English composition is all for power, for originality, for evidence of intellectual promise and capacity, for striking and vivid expression, — in a word, for personality. This is all very well. Courses in writing will gain immensely in interest by the new emphasis. But in order that the teacher may be set free for this inspirational instruction, some guide is necessary from the narrow mechanics of English grammar to the wide liberty of a free and unrestricted style. There is a gap in the transition from school to college, and the reminders of grammar and good form are too often dismissed in the effort to obtain vigor and freshness of thought. Such a guide, such a reminder, this book is designed to be. For ignorant or forgetful students it should serve as a useful book of reference. For the teacher the plentiful exercises should afford relief from the drudgery of drill, since the student should be able to learn his defects in performing the written assignments. The entire plan of the work lies in instant and concrete illustration.

The volume may also find employment on the desk of the ready writer, who has found in questions of disputed usage the dictionary discussions too brief for his own satisfaction.

Great care has been taken to present rules and terminology that are in harmony with the best authorities and with reliable current usage. In the use of grammatical terms, for example, the recommendations of the Joint Committee of the Philological and the Modern Language Associations have been largely adopted; in capitalization, the practice of the United States printing office has been taken into account; in hyphenization, both the governmental use and the use of scientific periodicals have been considered. Wherever possible the aim has been to incorporate the best use of great bodies of publications rather than the narrower and more theoretical rules of the makers of dictionaries.

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SUGGESTIONS FOR USE

If the authors of this book could have done so, they would have made its function an automatic one. As the economy of our day demands the reduction of mental effort to the mere finding of push buttons, so — if it were possible — the references to matters covered in the volume would have been arranged to respond at the mere touch of a word. Indeed, the alphabetical word list is in fact an arrangement of push buttons with immediate contact for difficulties which can immediately be answered. Should you wish to know why "Professor Cox failed me" is not good English, you have but to look up **Fail** in the list of misused words (**6**).

But any textbook is a poor one which does not give you a training, however slight, in the art of finding what you want to find. Our manual takes for granted the fact that you are interested in the matter of your own habits of speech and that you are willing to make some effort to test these matters for yourself, — to assume the offensive in a strong drive against your own false ground of instruction. You will not wish to depend upon the instructor to refer you to a numbered section covering your needs. Let us see, then, if we can find a key which will open the volume at large to you.

Let us suppose that you have found yourself in the habit of saying "I have no hope of us winning," and your neighbor says "no hope of our winning." Which is right? How shall you find out? Note at once that the question boils down to the use of "us" or "our"; it might easily be a question of "me" or "my." Obviously you will not look under "us" or "our" in the word list. What is the point at issue? Is it in the accusative or genitive use of a pronoun? Turn, then, to the analysis of contents, or to the chapter on sentences; look for the class, "Pronouns," then "Case," and you will find what you want under **14**. Or you may observe that the difficulty lies in the principal modifier of a gerund, "winning." Then, if you prefer the index use, look under the head "Gerund" to guide you to the same article. This way presupposes, however, the use of a more technical term than does the other; your own familiarity with the terms of grammar will determine your method of approach.

Or let us say that your difficulty has to do with punctuation. Again, in order to find the proper push button you must analyze the special instance. Suppose you have the sentence, "He is sure to make the team as soon as he recovers from his injury, he is our best fullback." You have used a comma here. You will already have noted that marks of punctuation are measures of weight. You will therefore weigh the two clauses; are they coördinate or is one subordinate? Deciding for coördinate, you will look up this word in the detailed analysis of

contents, in the side notes, or in the index, and your quest is ended.

Our method, in short, presupposes on your part the will to help yourself in the habit of analysis, together with a certain elementary knowledge of grammar. You will so familiarize yourself with the plan of the various sections of the book that no difficulty will be met in finding what you are looking for. The exercises for grammatical review in the Appendix are there to recall to your mind the things you previously learned but have forgotten; and as Sir Philip Sidney said, "What so much good doth learning bring forth as that it doth cause one to do what it doth teach."

INTRODUCTION

"The difficulty of literature," says Stevenson, "is not to write, but to write what you mean; not to affect your reader, but to affect him precisely as you wish. This is commonly understood in the case of books or set orations; even in making your will, or writing an explicit letter, some difficulty is admitted by the world. But one thing you can never make Philistine natures understand; . . . namely, that the business of life is mainly carried on by means of this difficult art of literature, and according to a man's proficiency in that art shall be the freedom and the fulness of his intercourse with other men." Recently Sir Arthur Quiller-Couch has impressed the young men of Cambridge University with this same thought — the everyday importance of the skilful use of words: "Let me remind you that you cannot use the briefest, the humblest process of thought, cannot so much as resolve to take your bath hot or cold, or decide what to order for breakfast, without forecasting it to yourself in some form of words. Words are, in fine, the only currency in which we can exchange thought even with ourselves. . . . Does it not follow that some practice in the deft use of words . . . may well be ancillary even to the study of natural science in a university?"

A man can, of course, get on very comfortably

without an artist's mastery of language; but a good working use of English is essential to the "business of life," whether you take "business" in its wide or in its usual restricted sense. The man of affairs is quick to realize that good English is a matter of prime and enduring importance; he has little sympathy with the freshman who, according to a story coming from Purdue University, flung his English notebook into the hedge on a June day and shouted, "Now I've got a pass in that stuff, I can write for the rest of my life as I please!"

This "good English" is the English used by present writers and speakers who are competent to set the standard. It is not necessarily elegant, or polished, or exquisite English; it is necessarily only acceptable English. Nor is it of only one kind; acceptable English in jovial converse with a friend differs from that in a business interview; acceptable English in the preface to a college joke book is not that of the editorial in a college annual or of a business letter; acceptable English in a familiar essay varies from that in a formal address or a diplomatic document. The one element that these various kinds of expression have in common is their "decency," their acceptableness, in the given circumstances, to educated and discriminating tastes.

To be a master of good English, then, you must know the correct from the incorrect, and must be able to judge what is comprehensible and acceptable to a given audience and what is not. You must ask yourself, "Are my words real English

words, and are they fitted to carry my ideas to my particular hearers?" And again, "Do my words accurately record the relations between my ideas?" And, further, "Do I know the principles and conventions of written and printed form?" Until you — and your readers — can answer "Yes" to these questions, you should remain unsatisfied with your use of English.

The means open to you are various. First of all, you can try always to read and hear and practise the best English possible; then you can learn how to make independent and intelligent use of dictionaries, grammars, and handbooks.

The present handbook is offered to you as a guide and corrective. In Part I the common pitfalls in vocabulary and in sentence and paragraph structure are pointed out, the emphasis being laid whenever possible on what to do rather than what not to do. For grammatical review, if that proves to be necessary to your full understanding of this part, abundant exercises are offered in the Appendix. In Part II the logical principles and accepted conventions governing the written and printed forms of speech are given as a guide to those of you who properly sense the fact that the written page, like dress, proclaims the man. Throughout, the principles are so presented that you will view them, it is hoped, not as "rules" imposed on an unwilling and uncomprehending victim, but rather as statements of reasonable and universally sanctioned custom, which no man can afford to violate.

MANUAL OF GOOD ENGLISH

PART I

GOOD USE IN THE ELEMENTS OF EXPRESSION

CHAPTER ONE

WORDS

Good use demands *genuine* and *appropriate* words

1. FINDING the right word is as important in sentence building as is selecting the properly shaped stone for an arch you would construct or the requisite chemical for a compound you may form. And the right word, like the requisite chemical, is the one that is true or pure, and precisely fitted to your present need; it is *genuine* and *appropriate*. Often the words we use in careless speech are not genuine words at all; more often they are real words inappropriately used. These ill-chosen words bring in their revenges, as that debater knows who, throughout a recent public debate, praised our railroad systems for their *enormity*. A certain old gentleman today enjoys telling how, as a boy in a small New England college, he paid high for a disregard of this truth. Summoned by the president to account for his late return to classes after the Christmas holidays, he explained it satisfactorily on the basis of "delay and inconvenience in travel." The presi-

dent, as kindly as he was eccentric, was inclined to raise no further question; but, in the act of canceling the note against the student's name, he inquired absently, "And what was this 'inconvenience in traveling,' my lad?"

"Why, the New York blizzard, sir," responded the boy.

The president's pen stopped short. "You young puppy," growled the old gentleman, "if you can't use your mother tongue better than to call that howling blizzard an 'inconvenience' — well, you deserve that demerit — and, sir, you have it."

Good use not rigid and narrow: the freedom of the practised speaker

Such awkward errors are easy enough to avoid if you only remember that your words must fit what you mean to say, "cleanly adhering," in Stevenson's phrase, "like an athlete's skin," and must also be appropriate to your audience and the circumstances of your speaking. This allows you considerable leeway. For words that are out of place or actually inadmissible in addressing a general public or in formal speech may be under other conditions quite acceptable. In letters to friends, for example, and in familiar speech, a degree of liberty is permitted that is by no means allowable in general intercourse. Since, in talking with friends, we need not be constantly measuring our words, and speaking in terms fitted to our official status, we may trifle with the materials of speech, in a playful or an ironic mood; assuming the character of a rustic, an actor, a courtier, a street urchin, we may give free vent to forms of speech that would not be

recognized or tolerated in general use. We may play with an unauthorized term as an expert blacksmith juggles his tools, alleviating the monotony of his business by the playful violation of the regular use of his instrument.

But such license is granted only to the master workman. The apprentice must always learn the right use of his tool. Thus the beginner in English must at first restrict himself to such words as are immediately and generally understood, avoiding the slang term or the easy colloquialism that comes readily to his lips. Even as his freedom grows with advancing mastery, he must remember that there are boundaries set by good taste (though these are neither confining nor inflexible) and that he cannot afford to stand outside them.

A guide to the right use of words is offered in the present chapter. A few preliminary paragraphs suggest the attitude that we should as a rule assume to special classes of words that are not universally serviceable — to slang, provincialisms, and the like. In the alphabetic list of expressions often misused, which makes up the chief part of the chapter, the recognized standing of each word, or its meaning, as the case may be, is defined as precisely as is possible for anything so fluid as language.

Restricted Vocabularies

Slang

2. Slang words belong to a generally unauthorized vocabulary, which every speaker of English should be able to do without. The chief objections to

slang are voiced in the following extract from a recent number of *Life:*

"It would seem as if, in common practice, the only safe rule about the use of slang is exactly the reverse of what it actually is. The rule is that no one should use slang until after he is thirty years old. The practice is that all young people use slang until thirty; after that they usually drop it for a more respectable form of expression.

"Slang is the indiscriminate raw material of language, and it generally takes a great deal of it to make one useful word. . . .

"Slang is generally made by young minds with limited vocabularies. The reason for this is apparent. These minds have not taken the time to learn the language and acquire enough of a legitimate vocabulary to be able to express their meaning. They are in too much of a hurry to express themselves; they therefore coin any expression which they think will fit. As people grow older, however, they discover that the language is rich enough to meet all their wants. . . . Therefore, they discard slang.

"Generally speaking, immature minds groping for means to express themselves are unable to hit upon one word to express a particular condition, and so they invent whole phrases. Thus a great deal of slang consists of short phrases. . . .

"Slang is . . . an expression of weakness and ignorance. It shows that you are not willing to take the time or to make the effort to find out a

proper method of expressing yourself, or else that you are blind to the possibilities of your language."

Colloquialisms

3. Colloquial expressions, on the other hand, are often very generally understood, and are acceptable in speech and writing that is to any degree conversational. In communication that is avowedly and consistently formal, colloquialisms are inopportune.

Coined words

4. Coinages must be adopted as the speaker's observation of the growing language and his good taste direct. Some new formations, like *to special* (a letter), are uncountenanced. Many, though not unrecognized, are still to a greater or less degree on trial — for example, *to gesture, to wire, to wireless, to clerk, to finance, to referee, to motor.* The popular decision is sometimes for and sometimes against such words; it seems to be strongly against *to burglarize, to suspicion, to suicide;* it is for *Pasteurize,* but is probably still reserved in the case of *Fletcherize.* On the whole, the wiser attitude towards applicants for a place in the language is one of discriminating welcome.

Provincialisms, local terms

5. Provincial, dialectal, or local expressions, foreign expressions, archaic terms, and technical terms are alike in being much less generally understood than colloquial words; they are therefore inappropriate in writing or speaking intended for a general public. Provincialisms and other local terms, however, are not objectionable in conversation with people who will not be puzzled by them, provided that they are of recognized standing in

Foreign terms

the community in question; they give a pleasing, individual flavor to familiar speech. Foreign words and phrases are likewise above question when they are used intelligently, and not ostentatiously, in familiar communication with those who will readily understand them. Certain foreign terms (like

Archaic terms

certain archaic expressions) are admissible in discourse of special kinds — legal and theological, for instance — because they are widely understood.

Technical terms

Technical terms, unless they are commonly current, are fitting only in discussions addressed to the expert. The following suggestion, offered by the United States Geological Survey to prospective authors of reports, is worthy of consideration: "In writing a report that may be of general interest or that may find readers who are unfamiliar with scientific or technical terms, an author may profitably bear in mind the saying that 'the ideal of style is the speech of the people in the mouth of the scholar.'" (*Suggestions to Authors*, 1913, p. 42.)

Restricted vocabularies useful for "local color" in fiction

Note 1. — Words drawn from any of the restricted vocabularies here mentioned — colloquial, provincial, archaic, and the like — are allowable, within limits, in fiction, in order to create "local color." Such expressions, however, are not to be scattered so lavishly as to lose all piquancy. Nor are they to be used without regard for the forms of the language of the particular region or the particular time under consideration; in a recent magazine story a young man impersonating a fine gentleman of Sir Joshua Reynolds's day addresses a young girl in these words: "Gramercy for thy sweet courtesy, O most amiable of thy sex. While I would full fain meet thy lady aunt and sip tea with her, yet I am right content to rest me for a space e'en as I am"; and later he adds, "I be a

scrivener by occupation." What the writer of these words lacked was the knowledge of the language and the sense of congruity essential to good use of English words.

Avoid high sounding terms and general terms

NOTE 2. — The choice of *simple* and *specific* terms as more appropriate than high sounding and general terms, being dictated by a regard for what is effective rather than for what is accepted, does not fall within the field of the present discussion. But it is well to note in passing the absurd emptiness of "fine writing": for instance, the description of a man approaching the scene of a catastrophe as "a stranger to the death-decimated group," or the mention of student soldiers as those who "have paid a liberal tribute to the murderous fury of Wotan." Likewise we may note the constant use of the too general term, like *thing:* "There are several *things* in his manner that annoy me." — "It was summer," the inexpert would write, "when the smell of the city is unpleasant, and when one doesn't need an artificial light to see the things on the table." "It was the height of summer," writes Sir James Barrie, "when London smells like a chemist's shop, and he who has the dinner table at the window needs no candle to show him his knife and fork."

Words and Phrases often Misused

6. The following words, often misused, demand attention:

NOTE. — Words and phrases with no place or no recognized place in the language are described as "nonexistent," "unauthorized," or "unrecognized." Expressions described as "colloquial" or "provincial" are not given as incorrect or useless, but as incapable of universal usefulness. (See **1–5.**) Effort has been made to distinguish objectionable colloquialisms from those that are acceptable in ordinary familiar speech.

A.D. — Strictly speaking, we should use *A.D.* only with numbers indicating particular years (43 *A.D.*, 8–10 *A.D.*), since *A.D.* stands for *Anno Domini* (in the year of the Lord); but there is good precedent for using it to describe a century or decade. DIVIDED

USE: the sixth century *after Christ;* the sixth century *A.D.* — Though purists insist on "He died 48 A.D." [not *in* 48 A.D.], usage allows *in;* it allows *A.D.* either before or after the year.

About: colloquial for *almost* with descriptive adjectives, as in "*about* the coldest day we've had"; universally accepted with numbers, as in "*about* twenty."

Above: allowable as an adjective ("the *above* remarks") or as a noun ("the *above* will prove"). The most careful speakers, however, prefer *preceding* or *foregoing.*

Accept, except. — We *accept* a favor; we *except* one person from a general condemnation.

Accompany by, with. — A man is accompanied *by* his dog; he accompanies a remark *with* a grimace. Use *by* with *accompany* when you would suggest a voluntary act of accompanying, i.e., when the accompanying object may be viewed as a companion.

Accordance with. — A situation is in accordance *with* (not in accordance *to;* not in *concordance with*) a previous agreement.

Ad: unauthorized abbreviation for *advertisement.*

Adapted for, to. — A play is *adapted* (revised) *for* presentation before children, but *adapted to* the taste of children.

Admit, confess. — We *admit* what does not necessarily concern us closely; we *confess,* with some sense of fault, or, at least, of deference to others, what concerns us closely. CORRECT: I *admit* he failed. — He *confessed* his crime.

Advantage of, over. — A person has the advantage *of* superior training, the advantage *over* or *of* his opponent. "You have the advantage of me" for "I don't remember who you are," though well supported, is to be avoided as unnecessarily indirect and pretentious.

Aeroplanist: unrecognized coinage for *aviator.*

Affect, effect. — A plea may *affect* (influence) our sympathies, and yet *effect* (bring about) no change of policy. — *Effect* (noun) means *result.* There is no noun *affect.*

After, out for : colloquial for *trying to get*, etc. FORMAL : Several men are *trying to get* [colloquial, *after, out for*] this position. PREFERRED : What *does he want?* [NOT : What *is he after ?* What's he *out for?*]

Aggravate, irritate. — To *aggravate* is to make worse, heavier (carelessly used, colloquially, with a person as object) ; to *irritate* is to annoy, inflame (a person, wound, etc.). — A child's whining *irritates* (not *aggravates*) the mother ; it *aggravates* her illness.

Agree to, with. — We agree *with* a person, but *to* (not *with*) a compact.

Alien, foreigner, stranger. — An *alien* is (specifically) a foreign-born resident not a citizen ; a *foreigner* is a person of another nation, usually not a citizen ; a *stranger* is one unknown to a person or in a place.

All : undesirable localism or colloquialism with *you*, referring to one or two persons, or with *who*, as in " Did *you all* see him ? " (addressed to one or two hearers), and " *Who all* were there ? "

All of : colloquial in " I need *all of* them," " He lost *all of* his money." PREFERRED : I need *them all.* — He lost *all his money.*

All right : a much overused phrase. Colloquially *all right* for *very well* is permissible, but not in the sentence " I found it, *all right.*" Be sure to avoid the misspelling *alright.*

All the farther (**fartherer** a gross error), **all the faster,** etc. : unrecognized for *as far as, as fast as.* Say " This is *as far as* [not *all the farther;* not *all the fartherer*] I can go."

Allude, elude. — To *allude* to a thing is to refer to it somewhat indirectly ; to *elude* it is to evade it. (Avoid the careless use of *allude* for *mention explicitly.*) — Note the corresponding difference between *allusive* and *elusive.*

Allude to : see **At.**

Allusion, illusion. — We make an *allusion* (i.e., a general reference) to a passage ; we have an optical *illusion.* Note the corresponding difference between *allusive* and *illusive* (as between *allude* and the very rare verb *illude*).

Alone : allowable for *only,* unless it is ambiguous, as it is when one says " I'll see him *alone,*" meaning " I'll see him *only.*"

Alternative. — Strictly *alternative* is used in reference to a choice between *two* things; loosely, it applies to a choice between *two or more.*

Altogether : correct, to mean *entirely, wholly;* often wrongly used for *all together.*

Amendment, emendation. — We speak of *amendments* to the constitution, *amendment* of faults, *emendation* of faulty texts. — There is no such word as **amendation.**

Among, between. — *Among* always implies that you are thinking of more than two objects ; therefore do not say " among *each other,*" " among *one another,*" but " among *themselves* " ; do not speak of an agreement *among* two men. *Between* (akin to *twain*) literally implies two objects and only two ; never say " He gasped between *each word,*" but rather " between *every two words* " ; speak of an agreement *between two* men, but not of an agreement *between three,* unless your mind takes them up in pairs, conceiving of A as agreeing with B, B with C, etc. CORRECT : At the University of Missouri walks run *between Lathrop and Benton and Academic Halls.* — A treaty relation *between these three powers* has just been disclosed. — He gave a cowboy yodel *between every two stanzas* [not *between each stanza*]. — You two boys settle it *between* [not *among*] yourselves. — Let's divide the money *among ourselves* [not *among each other*].

Angry at, with. — We are *angry with,* or less commonly *at,* a person ; *at* or *about* a thing.

Animalculæ : unauthorized plural of a supposedly singular *animalcula,* which is really the plural of *animalculum.* — The anglicized forms, *animalcule, animalcules,* are preferable to the Latin *animalculum, animalcula.*

Antagonize : colloquial for *alienate, make an opponent of.* Strictly, *antagonize* means oppose, and implies nothing as to the effect of the opposition on the opposed : a congressman may *antagonize* a man without *alienating* him (and, in the United States, he may be said to

antagonize a measure) ; it is possible to *antagonize* (i.e., counteract) a disease. — The colloquial use is gaining ground ; the New English Dictionary, 1888, and the New Standard, 1913, record it without marking it colloquial.

Note that *antagonism* means *opposition*, not necessarily *animosity*.

Anticipate : see **Expect**.

Anxious : a common colloquialism for *eager*, *desirous*. We are *eager* (rather than *anxious*) to see our friends ; we are *anxious* (disquieted) about the illness of a friend.

Any : loosely used for *every*. CLEAR : I'm afraid, madam, this won't fit *every* [not *any*] fixture in the house. (Won't fit *any* fixture " would be understood to mean " will fit *no* fixture.")

Any, some : misused for *at all*, *somewhat*. CORRECT : I haven't worked *at all* [not *any*] today. — You've improved *somewhat* [not *some*].

Anyone else's : now preferred to *anyone's else*. (So *someone else's*, *everybody else's*, etc.)

Anyplace, everyplace, noplace, someplace, etc. : unrecognized for *anywhere* or *in any place*, etc.

Anyways, someways : colloquial or provincial errors for *anyway*, *someway*. (See **Ways**.)

Anywheres, everywheres, nowheres, somewheres, etc. : nonexistent forms used for *anywhere*, etc.

Apparent, evident. — If a man's guilt is *apparent* it appears to exist ; if it is *evident*, it is unmistakable (proved by evidence ; see **Evidence**). Be careful not to say " He is *evidently* lying," if you mean only " He is *apparently* lying."

Appreciate : correctly used (though often attacked) in the senses *raise in value* or *rise in value* (in which senses the word has been " long in use in the United States," according to the New English Dictionary, 1888) ; correctly used to mean *estimate highly* or *fully*, wherefore " to *appreciate fully* (*highly*) " is redundant.

Apt : see **Liable**.

As : ungrammatical provincialism for *that* in " I don't know *as* [correct, *that*] he can " ; questionable for

such as in " wild flowers, *as* [preferable, *such as*] buttercups " ; overworked and sometimes ambiguous in the sense of *because, when,* etc., for example, in " *As* he appeared, I left." (See **54**, *3, b–d.*)

As good as : undesirable colloquialism, as an adverb, for *practically,* in " He *as good as* told me."

As much : incorrect for *this, so,* crude for *practically this, something like this.* CORRECT: He's failing in strength ; he admitted *this* [not *as much*] today. — He *practically admitted it* [not *admitted as much*] today. — I thought *so* [not *as much*].

At : overused — either wrongly inserted or substituted for the proper preposition. CORRECT : Where *is* he [not *is* he *at*] ? — Where have you *been* [not *been at*] ? — Where do you *live* [not *live at*] ? — Did he allude *to* [not *at*] me ? — I'm awkward *in* [not *at*] playing tennis [though *awkward at tennis*]. — I was happy *over* his success [though *at* a particular victory]. — Help me *to move* [or *in moving,* rather than *at moving*] this. — Listen *to* [not *at*] me ! — I hope you'll succeed *in* [rather than *at*] convincing him. — I wish you success *in* [rather than *at*] your work.

Audience, spectators. — Properly we speak of the *audience* (hearers) at an address; the *spectators* (beholders), not the *audience,* at a moving-picture show, or a pageant. Often, of course, an assembly is as much interested in observing as in hearing ; in such cases either term is applicable.

Aught, naught. — Properly for " 102 " we say " one *naught* two," since *naught* is the negative of *aught,* and means *nothing* or *a cipher.* Both Webster and the New Standard, however, allow *aught* for the cipher, Webster pointing out that *a naught* is taken as *an aught.* (Telephony has introduced the allowable " one *o* two.")

Auto : colloquial abbreviation for *automobile* (noun or verb) ; not yet fully accepted, but probably destined to establish itself as a genuine word, just as *mob,* for example, and *cad, van, hack* have done, originally slang shortenings of *mobile* (*vulgus mobile,* the fickle crowd), *cadet, vanguard, hackney.* (See **Exam, Phone, Photo.**)

Automobile (verb) } These words seem to be in the pro-
Automobilist } cess of establishing themselves.

Avenge, revenge. — In the interests of justice we *avenge* an evil that affects others and perhaps ourselves; we *revenge ourselves for* (or *revenge*) a personal injury, perhaps in mere malice. A revolutionist may at one stroke *avenge* a century of wrongs; I may *revenge myself* on a man who has justly humiliated me. — This distinction, though "not absolutely observed, largely prevails." (New English Dictionary.)

Average: overworked. Strictly relating to an arithmetical mean, medial size, etc. (as in "to compute the *average* cost"), popularly meaning (*the*) *ordinary*, it is often used where *ordinary, customary, usual(ly)*, etc., would be better. PREFERRED: *As a rule* [not *on the average*] use this form. — The *ordinary* [not *average*] audience was unruly.

Avocation, vocation. — One's *avocation* (*ab*, from + *vocare*, to call) is what *calls* him *away from* his *vocation* (his calling); if his *vocation* is law, his *avocation* may be yachting.

Await: now only transitive, meaning *wait for, be in store for.* We *await* (not *await for*) an arrival; we *wait* (not *await*) until a given time.

Aware, conscious. — We usually say we are *aware* of a thing perceived as without ourselves, *conscious* of something felt as within; thus I am *aware* of a friend's dismay, but *conscious* of my own.

Awful: colloquial and slang as a blanket term for *bad, rough, harsh*, etc., or as an intensified *very.* Do not impoverish your vocabulary by speaking of an *awful* storm, an *awful* liar, an *awful* admirer of Kipling, an *awfully* nice girl.

Awkward at, in: see **At.**

Back: redundant in *return back, recede back*, etc. (See **Be back**).

Back of: see **In back of.**

Bad (to feel *bad*): see **Good.**

Badly: colloquial for *very much.* An actress wants *very much*, rather than *badly*, to act a certain part; cer-

tainly she does not want to act the part *very badly*. (See **Want**.)

Balance. — We speak of having a *balance* in our favor at the bank, but of spending the *rest*, or *remainder* (not *balance*) of a sum. We speak of the *rest* or *the other members* (not *balance*) of a party, of the *remainder* (not *balance*) of the stock. — Reserve *balance* in such cases to express the excess on one side when two sides are being actually or figuratively weighed.

Bank on : undesirable colloquialism for *rely on*.

Be back : colloquial for *have come back, have returned* in "I shall *be back* soon," "*Is* he *back* yet?"

Be cured of : colloquial, not in good standing, for *outgrow*.

Beat : allowable for *excel* or *vanquish* whenever genuine competition is involved, but overworked in such sentences as "Our car *beats* [preferable, *surpasses*] theirs in speed," "Our team *beat*" [preferable, *won*]. (See **Lick**.)

Begin, commence, inaugurate, initiate. — *Begin* and *commence* are synonymous ; *begin* is preferred in ordinary use, *commence* being somewhat more formal. Use *initiate* and *inaugurate*, in the sense of *begin*, only when there is distinct implication of formality or dignity (often deliberate) in the act of beginning : we *inaugurate* a campaign with an impressive meeting ; we *initiate* a formal inquiry ; we cannot be said to *initiate* or *inaugurate* a discussion, for example, with a tactless allusion, or an informal party with dancing. The pretentious use of these words instead of the simple *begin* is very common in reports of political and commercial transactions, and the like.

Beside, besides. — Usually *beside* is the preposition (*beside* the bed) and *besides* the adverb (to be useful, *besides*) ; but occasionally *besides* is used as a preposition, meaning *in addition to* (*besides* injuring us ; nothing left *besides* honor).

Beside of : unrecognized for *beside*.

Better part of : good colloquialism for *most of ;* to be avoided, however, when capable of misinterpretation : He ate the *better part of* the steak himself.

Between : see **Among**.

Blame it on : unapproved colloquialism. Blame *a person* (direct object) *for* a thing ; do not blame *the thing* (*it*) *on* the person.

Both, each. — Use *both* for two considered jointly, *each* for one of two or more. CORRECT : *Each man* [not *both men*] wore a flaming tie. *Each* contestant [not *both contestants*] tried to outdo the other. — *Both* is superfluous in " They are *both* alike."

Bound : colloquial (not objectionable) in the United States for *determined*.

Brainy : objectionable colloquialism for *very intelligent*.

Bunch, crowd : unaccepted colloquialisms or slang for *group* or *set* (an acceptable colloquialism for *coterie* or *clique*). ACCEPTABLE : a *group* of us [not a *bunch* or *crowd* of us] ; our *set* [not our *bunch*, our *crowd*].

But that : often incorrectly used for *but*. CORRECT : There's no doubt *that* [not *but that*] he will recover. — It's not improbable *that* [not *but that*] he will come. (Reserve *but that* to express what is in some way the negative of *that* — to mean *except that, were it not that, not so — but that,* etc.)

But what : error for *that, but that,* etc. CORRECT : I've no doubt *that* [not *but what*] he'll try. — I've no fear *but that* [not *but what*] he'll try. — I'm not so discouraged *but that* [or *but ;* not *but what*] I shall try. — There is no public officer *who does not make* [not *but what makes ;* not *but who makes*] some mistakes. — It never rains *but* (*that*) it pours. [VARIANT : It never rains *without pouring*. NOT : It never rains *but what* it pours.] — Observe that *but what* is correctly used in " I'll do nothing *but what* I want to do," or in " He wants everything *but what* is good for him," in which *but* means *except,* and *what* is a substantive (object of *do,* subject of *is*) in the clause depending on *but*.

Calculate : local in the United States in the sense of *think, plan, expect,* etc. We *think* (not *calculate*) that a book is too long to be interesting ; we *intend* (not *calculate*) to set out on a certain day. Properly, we *calculate* costs and *calculate on* coöperation.

Calculated : acceptable as meaning *fit, apt, of a nature likely to.* " A circumstance *calculated* to excite strong suspicion." (Gladstone, quoted in the New English Dictionary.)

Calvary, cavalry. — *Calvary*, the name of the place where Christ was crucified, is sometimes carelessly confused with *cavalry*, the name of a military force serving on horseback.

Can, may. — Use *can* to express ability, *may* to express permission. CORRECT : *May* [not *can*] I help you carry that ? — Even if he *can* walk as far as that, he *may* not. (Colloquially the two are interchangeable.)

Case, instance : " used for ' places ' or for other words, or used superfluously. . . . In the sentence ' This coal has been measured in several instances,' ' instances ' is used for ' places.' ' Sometimes these reservoirs are lined with clay ; in other cases they are unlined ' is equal to the simpler statement, ' Some of these reservoirs are lined with clay; others are unlined." (*Suggestions to Authors*, United States Geological Survey, 1913). The same note includes the following specimen, taken from a manuscript submitted for publication : " In some cases there are instances of fault." On *case* see also Sir Arthur Quiller-Couch's diverting " Interlude : On Jargon " (*On the Art of Writing*, 1916, p. 103) : " The clerk of a Board of Guardians will minute that —

> " In the case of John Jenkins deceased the coffin provided was of the usual character.
>
> " Now this is not accurate. . . . Actually John Jenkins never had more than one case, and that was the coffin. The clerk says he had two, — a coffin in a case ; but I suspect the clerk to be mistaken, and I am sure he errs in telling us that the coffin was of the usual character ; for coffins have no character, usual or unusual."

Censor, censure. — The *censor* (the regular or self-appointed judge or official licenser) *censors* or passes judgment on a play, or a message in time of war ; to *censure*, or to *give censure*, is to reprove or reprimand, without any

suggestion of official or semiofficial action. The words are commonly confused.

Cent, penny, copper. — *Cent* is the official name, *penny* the colloquial name, for the lowest coin in the monetary system of the United States (just as *nickel* is colloquial for *five-cent piece*) ; *copper* is a colloquialism less reputable than *penny*. In practice, *cent* is preferable to express value, but *penny* is preferable, colloquially, to *one-cent piece* or *cent* as a name for the coin. (Confusion with the English *penny*, worth two cents, is not likely to occur within the United States.) PREFERRED : This paper costs three *cents*, but it's not worth more than one *cent*. — That man gave me three *pennies* [or, formally, *cent pieces ;* here the speaker thinks of the coins]. — Can you give me five *cents ?* [Here the speaker thinks of the value.]

Change, exchange. — We *exchange* (rather than *change*) one object for another. *Change* for *exchange* is now unusual except in "*change* places," "*change* a bill," etc.

Change with, exchange for. — You change places *with* a person ; you exchange an imperfect pair of gloves *for* (not *with*) a perfect pair.

Character, recommendation, reputation. — A man's *character* is his nature, his *reputation* is his supposed nature ; *character* is wrongly used to mean *recommendation*. CORRECT : Despicable in *character*, he yet enjoyed a high *reputation* among his townspeople. — His *reputation* [not *character*] here is bad. — I can't give him a *recommendation* [not *good character*]. — On *character* loosely used for *kind* see above, under **Case**, the quotation from Sir Arthur Quiller-Couch.

Claim : colloquial for *assert, maintain.* I may *claim* the victory, or *claim* to be the rightful heir, but I *maintain* (rather than *claim*) that a plan is unwise. It is better to reserve *claim* for cases involving the claimant's right or title to the thing claimed ; the colloquial use seems, however, to be growing.

Climactic, climatic. — An arrangement forming a climax, or ascending series, is *climactic ;* conditions pertaining to climate are *climatic.*

Coincidence. — *Coincidence*, implying the co-occurrence of two or more events, cannot refer to one event. CORRECT: It's a coincidence that they should both come here today. [NOT: His arrival here is a *coincidence.*]

Color: loosely used for *shade.* ACCURATE: I dislike that *shade* [not *color*] of blue.

Combine (noun): an undesirable colloquialism in the United States for *private combination, conspiracy,* etc., as in "the coal *combine,*" "a *combine* in restraint of trade."

Commence: see **Begin.**

Common: see **Mutual.**

Company: intolerable in "He is my *company*" (i.e., guest, escort, either occasional or habitual); a vulgarism in "to keep *company* with" (i.e., be with frequently); a good informal term for *guests* (plural), as in "We have *company* today."

Compare to, with. — We compare Emerson's opinions *with* similar opinions of Carlyle; we compare a strong man *to* an oak. As a rule, with *compare,* use *with* if the objects compared are similar in kind, and their similarity is close; use *to* when they are on the whole rather dissimilar than similar, particularly if they are different in kind.

Complected: unauthorized form for *complexioned* or *of . . . complexion.* We speak of a man as *of dark complexion* (less good, *dark complexioned;* not *dark complected*).

Comprehensible, comprehensive. — Anything that is capable of being understood or comprehended is *comprehensible;* anything that is capable of comprising or comprehending much is *comprehensive.* A definition may be both *comprehensible* and *comprehensive;* a motive is *comprehensible* (not *comprehensive*) to you. — **Comprehendible** (not *comprehendable*) for *comprehensible* is rare, practically unused.

Con: college slang for *condition.* (See **Exam.**)

Conclude: well supported (though opposed) for *decide,* as in "He *concluded* to speak plainly."

Condign. — Punishment, if merited or suitable, is *condign; condign* punishment may be either light or heavy.

Confess : see **Admit.**

Confide in, to.— We *confide* (trust) *in* our luck and *in* our friends ; we *confide* (intrust) a secret or a task *to* a friend. *Confide*, meaning *intrust, tell*, requires a direct object. CORRECT : I *confide* my secrets *to* you. — I *confide in* [trust] you.— " He is very attractive to me," she *whispered* [or *said confidentially ;* not *confided*].

Conscious : see **Aware.**

Consider : properly used of close and deliberate thinking, loosely used for *think, believe.* PREFERRED : We *have decided* [not *consider*] that this claim should be allowed. — We *think* [not *consider*] that he will succeed.

Consider as. — We may *consider* (look upon, regard) a statement *as* an interesting suggestion ; but we *consider* (think) the statement true (not *as* true). When *consider* means *think*, the *as* before the predicate substantive or adjective is illogical, for the sentence in full form is : " We *consider* the statement *to be true.*"

Considerable. — We speak of *considerable* anxiety, *considerable* loss, a *considerable* time, a *considerable* sum, but not of *considerable* money, or *considerable* rain. Avoid *considerable* in the sense of *rather plentiful* with the name of actual materials, and also in the sense of *much* (noun) : say " *Much* [not *considerable*] has been gained already."

Consistently : carelessly overused for *always, constantly, persistently*, in cases where there is no sense of the consistency of one act with another; sometimes with ambiguous effect: " Great Britain has long and *consistently* held that [such] provisions . . . are contraband " (*Encycl. Brit.*) ; sometimes used when the act is *inconsistent* with other acts recorded in the sentence : Though father smoked incessantly, he *consistently* [better *always, steadily*] objected to my use of cigarettes.

Consul, council, counsel. — A *consul* is an official governmental representative, or a magistrate (in Roman and French history) ; a *council* is an advisory body ; *counsel* means advice, judgment, legal adviser(s). — A *councilor* is a member of a council, a *counselor* an adviser.

Contemptible, contemptuous (contemptful). — You are *contemptuous of* (i.e., you feel or show contempt for) a person who is *contemptible* (deserving of contempt). — **Contemptful** for *contemptuous* is obsolete.

Continual, continuous. — *Continual* implies a steady recurrence and refers only to time ; *continuous* implies an uninterrupted progression or union, and refers to time or to space. We speak of the *continual* repetition of certain complaints, *continual* complaints, *continuous* complaining ; we speak of *continual* showers, *continuous* rainfall during several days, a *continuous* level of sand.

Contract (verb) : colloquial for *promise,* where no price or reward is implied. CORRECT : He *agreed* [not *contracted*] to meet me at six.

Contrast to, with. — With *contrast* (verb) use *with ;* contrast x *with* y ; say that x contrasts *with* y. With *contrast* (noun) usage varies : x is (or presents) a contrast *to* y ; x is in contrast *with* or *to* y. (In no case say " a contrast *from* " or " to contrast this *from* that.")

Convene : well established, though often opposed, in the sense of *convoke.* (See the dictionaries. The use doubtless arose from a confusion in terms, since *convene* comes from *con,* together, and *venire,* to come, whereas *convoke* comes from *con* and *vocare,* to call.) CORRECT : He *convoked* [or *convened*] the conference.

Copper : see **Cent.**

Correspond to, with. — A man corresponds *with* (exchanges letters with) another ; his opinions correspond (are in harmony) *with* or *to* those of another ; his official position corresponds (is analogous) *to* (rarely *with*) that of another.

Could of : inexcusable corruption of *could have,* traceable to slovenly pronunciation. The same is true of *may of, must of, should of,* etc., for *may have,* etc. (See **Had have.**)

Council, counsel, councilor, counselor : see **Consul,** etc.

Couple : colloquial for *two. Couple* names two things associated or *coupled* in some way ; precisely speaking, we say " a married *couple* " or " a galvanic *couple,*" but not " a *couple* of miles," " a *couple* of objections."

Credible, creditable, credulous. — Anything *credible* is worthy of belief ; anything *creditable* is worthy of esteem, and anything *creditable to* a person does him credit ; anyone easily inclined (especially overinclined) to believe is *credulous*. Thus, though a story is *credible*, its hearers may be *incredulous*, perhaps because it is highly *creditable* to a man against whom they are bitterly prejudiced. — Childishly simple people are usually *credulous*. — An amateur play may be praised as a *creditable* performance.

Creek, crick. — The form *crick* is not so well established as *creek*. The use of *creek* for *brook* is colloquial in the United States and the British Colonies ; strictly, *creek* is a back water from sea or river. (The colloquial pronunciation " krik " is common in the United States.)

Crowd : see **Bunch.**

Cunning : colloquial in the United States for *attractive, dainty, amusing*, as in " a *cunning* baby." Carefully used, *cunning* means *skilful, keen, crafty.*

Cute : colloquial abbreviation for *acute* (sharp, keen) ; it is current in the United States alone in the sense of *attractive and amusing*, as in " a *cute* baby."

Data. — Since *data* is the plural of *datum*, we speak of *these* (not *this*) data, and we do not say " He presented his *data* " unless we are thinking of a number of separate facts. CORRECT : His *data* are [not *is*] convincing.

Date : undesirable colloquialism for *engagement, appointment.*

Days, nights, summers, etc. : misused as adverbs. CORRECT : I work there *at night* [not *nights*]. — We stay here *every summer* [not *summers*]. — With numerals, the plural is correct for extent of time : He worked *three nights* a week.

Deal : slangy colloquialism for *business transaction*, particularly for *underhand bargain ;* colloquial for *good deal* as in " a *deal* of trouble," and for (fair) treatment in " a square *deal.*"

Decided, decisive. — *Decided* means *definite and unmistakable ; decisive* means *conclusive.* A person is

decided (not *decisive*) in manner ; his opinion may be both *decided* and *decisive ;* his victory may be at once *decided* and *indecisive.*

Demean : " colloquial and lacking in distinction " for *debase* (Webster). — A man may *demean* (behave) himself either honorably or basely. (Compare *demeanor.*)

Depot, station. — Properly *depot* is reserved for a place of deposit, as a regimental *depot,* a milk *depot,* a freight *depot ;* use *station* (not *depot*) to name the passenger station of a railroad.

Deprecate : unintelligently used as a general equivalent of *disapprove* and also for *depreciate.* To *deprecate* means to *feel* or *express regret* (often apologetic regret). CORRECT : I *disapproved* (of) the decision. — He enjoys *depreciating* [not *deprecating*] himself. — Every honest man must *deprecate* [i.e., earnestly regret] such methods. — I watched her timid face with its *deprecating* smile.

Differ from, with. — I differ *with* (or *from*) you on a certain point ; my standpoint differs *from* (not *with*) yours. — Use either *with* or *from* with *differ* to express disagreement in opinion, but only *from* to express unlikeness.

Different from. — One object is *different from* (not *different to* or *different than*) another. *Different to* is colloquially current in England, and both *different to* and *different than* have some literary support ; but *different from* is usually considered the only correct form.

Diner, sleeper, smoker : colloquial in the United States for *dining car, sleeping car, smoking car ;* neither Century, 1911, nor Webster, 1913, records *diner* in this sense. However, to describe the words as " vulgar Americanisms " is unjustifiable.

Directly : incorrect according to some authorities, colloquial according to others, for *as soon as.* (The use is less common in the United States than in England.) PREFERRED : As soon as [not *directly*] he comes, I'll tell you.

Discover, invent. — A person *discovers* a thing already existing but hitherto unknown ; he *invents* something

entirely new. Thus Newton *discovered* (not *invented*) the law of gravitation; an explorer may *discover* a new continent, and may *invent* a kind of chronometer.

Disinterested, uninterested. — A *disinterested* judge is impartial, without undue interest in one side (and is accordingly praiseworthy); an *uninterested* judge is not interested in the case he is judging (and is accordingly at fault).

Do: more or less colloquial in the phrases "to *do* away with," "to *do* [suffice] for the present," "to *do* [explore] a town," "to *do* your lessons"; colloquial or slang in "to *do* me proud"; slang in "to *do* him out of his money," "to *do* for him [injure him fatally]," "to *do* a term in prison," etc.

Done: colloquial in "I'm *done* now," "I'm *done* with it." PREFERRED: I've finished with it. (See **Through**.)

Don't: ungrammatical if used as an abbreviation for *does not*. CORRECT: He *doesn't*, it *doesn't* [not *don't*]. (See **30**, *6*.)

Down (verb): colloquial for *overthrow* in "to *down* him in argument," "to *down* him with a club."

Drive: see **Ride**.

Drownded: unrecognized form of *drowned*.

Due: acceptable in the sense of *attributable*. We speak of an accident *due* to carelessness, a success *due* to the general manager, or (better) to his energy. — The noun modified by *due* must not be left to inference; write "The defeat was *due* to a blunder" (not: They were defeated, *due* to a blunder).

Each: see **Both**.

Economic, economical. — Present use does not allow the interchange of *economical* (thrifty) and *economic* (pertaining to the management of the income, expenditures, etc., of a government or a community).

Egoism, egotism. — *Egotism* implies more personal self conceit than *egoism*, which suggests rather a philosophical recognition of the supreme importance of the self (the *ego*).

Electric, trolley: colloquialisms when used as nouns for *electric car, trolley car*.

Electrocute : accepted generally, though a hybrid form (*electro-*+*-cute* as in *execute*). The New English Dictionary, 1897, does not record the word. The New Standard, 1913, prefers the spelling *electricute*.

Elegant, fine, grand, lovely, splendid : loosely used as general synonyms for *good*. Properly we speak of a *good* (not *elegant*) beefsteak, an *enjoyable* (not *fine*) ride, an *excellent* (not *fine*, *grand*) train, a *pleasant* (not *lovely*) visit, an *able* (not *splendid*) salesman. — Try to preserve for each of these words its peculiar meaning : for *elegant*, refined, polished, fastidious ; for *fine*, refined, not coarse, admirable (note the somewhat extended meaning in "a *fine* day," etc.) ; for *grand*, sublimely great ; for *lovely*, beautiful ; for *splendid*, brilliantly magnificent. (See **Nice**.)

Element, factor, feature, phase. — These words, somewhat similar in meaning, are often vaguely used. *Element* means a constituent part, *factor* an impersonal or personal agent, *feature* a lineament or an outstanding characteristic, *phase* an aspect or appearance. We speak of industry as an *element* of character and a *factor* in success ; we speak of an embezzlement as the *feature* of the day's news, and of a campaign as entering on a second *phase*. The lax use is illustrated by this sentence quoted from a newspaper of high standing : "The *Minnehaha* was racing for Halifax with all the speed which the *elements* of safety would allow the captain."

Else : superfluous in "No one (anyone) *else* but him." CORRECT : I favor no one *but* him. Anyone *else than* he would have failed.

Elude : see **Allude**.

Emendation : see **Amendment**.

Emigrate, immigrate. — An Italian *emigrates from* (Latin *ex*) Italy ; he *immigrates into* (Latin *in*) America.

Enormity, Enormousness. — *Enormity* refers to abnormal wickedness, *enormousness* to excessive size. A recent public debater caused some amusement by praising the *enormity* of the railroad systems of the United States.

Enthuse : unaccepted colloquial coinage, heard chiefly in the United States. CORRECT : I am *enthusiastic*

[not *am enthused*]. — He *spoke enthusiastically of it* [not *enthused over it*]. — It *made me enthusiastic* [not *enthused me*].

Episcopal, Episcopalian. — We speak of the *Episcopal* (not *Episcopalian*) Church, and of an *Episcopalian* (a member of the Episcopal Church).

Equally as : unrecognized substitute for *just as ; equally* is redundant. CORRECT : This stone is *just as* [not *equally as*] brilliant as a genuine diamond.

Etc. : inappropriate except in business-like contexts as a substitute for *and others, and the like.* Unnecessary after a series introduced by *such as* or other words used to indicate selected examples. CORRECT : He urged extreme measures, such as embargoes or blockades [not *such as* embargoes, blockades, *etc.*].

Every bit, every now and then, every once in a while : colloquial ; **every which way** : colloquial in the United States ; **every so often** unrecognized.

Everyplace, everywheres : see **Anyplace, Anywheres.**

Evidence : loosely used for *testimony.* A witness gives his *testimony* (declaration), which may or may not constitute *evidence* (what proves or disproves). CORRECT : I wonder what his *testimony* [not *evidence*] is worth.

Evident : see **Apparent.**

Exam, gym, lib, varsity, etc. : colloquial abbreviations, coming from the college campus ; some are generally understood and accepted in familiar talk, like *exam,* which is recognized as an independent word, colloquial, by the New English Dictionary, and is likely to establish itself (see **Auto**) ; others, like *con* for *condition* and *info* for *information* are slang, generally undesirable because generally unintelligible. (See **2,** on Slang.)

Except (verb) : see **Accept.**

Excepting : less common than *except.*

Exchange : see **Change, Change with.**

Exhilarator : often used for *accelerator.*

Expect, anticipate, suspect. — We *expect* and *anticipate* future events ; we *suspect* the existence of conditions, etc., either present or future. We *expect* what we

have ground to consider likely to occur ; we *anticipate* what we look forward to and realize beforehand, as when we *anticipate* in winter the delights of summer. *Suspect* implies a more vaguely grounded belief than does *expect* or *anticipate,* often a belief in something discreditable, " suspicious."

Expect and *suspect* must not be used interchangeably, and must not be used loosely to mean merely *believe ; to anticipate* should not be used to mean simply *to look for,* without the sense of *to foretaste.* CORRECT : I *suspect* [not *expect*] that there is treachery here. — I *expect* [not *suspect*] that we shall leave tomorrow. — I *believe* [not *expect ;* not *suspect,* unless surmise is suggested] it is time to go. — (See **Presume.**)

Factor : see **Element.**

Fail (transitive verb) : used carelessly on the college campus in " I *failed* the course," and quite improperly in " He *failed* me in English." The *student* does the failing, and fails *in* his work. *Fail,* transitive, properly means *to be wanting to,* as in " Believe in me, and I'll never *fail* you." ACCEPTABLE : I'm afraid I'll *fail* in English. — I'm afraid he's going to *condition* [not *fail* or *flunk*] me in English.

Farther, further : correctly used interchangeably, though *farther* usually relates literally to distance, whereas *further* is more often used figuratively ; to ride *farther,* to carry the argument *further.* (See **All the farther.**)

Fascination. — To say " I've always *had a fascination for* Becky Sharp " means " I have always fascinated Becky Sharp." A bewitching person *exercises a fascination on* or *over* (more colloquially, *has a fascination for*) the person who is charmed.

Favor : an undesirable colloquialism for *resemble.* ACCEPTABLE : He *looks like* [not *favors*] me.

Feature : see **Element.**

Fellow : acceptable term for *man, person,* in familiar speech; colloquial, in the plural only, as a form of address, as in " Listen to me, *fellows.*"

Female : in disfavor as a noun, for *woman,* and as an adjective, for *feminine,* except when there is distinct

emphasis on sex. CORRECT : She was a *woman* [not *female*] of great beauty. — The *feminine* [not *female*] characters are interesting. — It is arranged for *women's* [not *female* or *feminine*] voices. — The *female* [or *the female bird*] is different in color from the male.

Fewer, less. — *Fewer* refers to number, *less* to degree, amount, etc. CORRECT : My friends are *fewer* [not *less*] than formerly because my money is *less*.

Fierce : one of many adjectives current in school and college slang, in the attempt to make speech more forcible.

Find (noun): unacceptable in general use. CORRECT : They were fortunate to find Holloway. [HUNTING METAPHOR : Holloway was a great *find*.] — *Find* (noun) is acceptable also in the special vocabularies of treasure seeking, archæology, etc.

Fine : see **Elegant**.

First rate : used only colloquially as an adverb. Preferably we say a person rides *well* or *excellently* (not *first rate*). — The use of *first rate* as an adjective after *feel*, etc., equivalent to *well, in excellent health* (I feel *first rate*) is likewise colloquial.

Firstly : less common and in less favor than *first*.

Fix : inaccurate colloquialism for arrange, repair, etc. *Fix* properly means *to make firm, fast, permanent*. ACCURATE : We *put* the room *in order* [not *fixed* or *fixed up*]. — I must have my watch *repaired* [not *fixed*].

Fluke: slang, coming from the language of billiards or pool, for any lucky stroke, as in "He won it by a *fluke*"; the verb, as in "He tried to *fluke* a victory" is even less generally used and understood.

Flunk : see **Fail**.

Folks : a colloquialism or provincialism for *relatives, family*. PREFERRED : When did you see your *family* [or, colloquial, *people ;* not *folks*] ? — *Folks* for *persons* (as in "some *folks* say," "poor old *folks*") is a well-established colloquial plural, *folk* being now somewhat stilted.

For good (for good and all) : idiomatic, rather informal, for *finally*, in "Has he left *for good ?*"

Foreigner : see **Alien.**

Former, latter. — The terms refer respectively to the first and second in order of *two* things, parts, etc. CORRECT : Of the two [but not *three, four,* etc.] requests the *former* was granted, the *latter* refused. — Come the *latter* part [as distinct from the *former* part] of next week.

Opposed to *former* meaning *earlier,* as a rule use *later* (not *latter*).

Frighten, scare : an incorrect or questionable colloquialism when used intransitively. CORRECT : The horse *is frightened* [not *frightens*] easily. — The horse *is scared* [colloquial, *scares*] easily.

Frightened and *scared* are uncountenanced colloquialisms when used with *of* for *afraid of.* CORRECT : I am *afraid of* [not *scared of, frightened of*] thunder. — I was *frightened* [or, colloquial, *scared*] *by* that thunder clap. (*Afraid of* implies a state, often habitual, of fear ; *frightened by* suggests a sudden alarm ; *scared by,* more colloquial and less dignified than *frightened by,* suggests an unnerving fright.)

From : superfluous with *hence, thence, whence,* since these words mean *from* this place, *from* that place, *from* which place ; loosely used for *because of,* etc., if there is no suggestion of coming out of something. CORRECT : She wept *from* chagrin [chagrin viewed as the source]. — *From* all accounts I judge you're right. — *For* [not *from*] his carelessness, he was dismissed.

Funny : inaccurate colloquialism for *strange, odd.* ACCURATE : That's an *odd* [not *funny*] kind of car.— Reserve *funny* to mean *laughter-exciting.*

Gentleman, lady : not in good use as general terms for *man* and *woman* respectively (except formally, as in addressing an audience). Use the words only to distinguish the persons designated as persons of good breeding. — *Gentleman friend* and *lady friend* are objectionable for *friend,* or *a man* (*woman*) *who is a friend of mine ; gent* is intolerable.

Get : colloquial in many uses. PREFERRED (except for familiar use) : I hope she'll *be able to* [colloquial, *get to*]

go. — This *becomes* [or *comes to be ;* colloquial, *gets to be*] tiresome. — Let's *agree about* [colloquial, *get together on*] this. SLANG : *get across with, get away with.* — Consult the dictionary under *get.* (See **Has got.**)

Get-up : colloquial for *costume,* etc., as in " a stylish *get-up.*"

Give to, for. — We give (money) *to* the relief fund, but *for* (not *to*) the relief of sufferers.

Go, take : gross errors when used redundantly with *and,* as in " He *went and* spoiled it," " He *took and* ran for his life."

Go slow : still avoided by conservative speakers and sign makers but growing in favor (encouraged by the unquestionable idiom *go fast*) ; note the policeman's " Move *slow,* please," or the cowboy's song, " Move slow, little dogies." *Slow* for *slowly* is described as " poetical or colloquial " by the Century Dictionary, 1911, and as a variant by the New Standard, 1913 ; *slow* as an adverb is accepted without comment by the New English Dictionary, 1912, and Webster, 1913. The modern prose examples cited (both in the New English Dictionary) for *slow* (adverb) are Thackeray (1848), " We drove very slow," and *Edinburgh Review* (1858), " The narrative moves *slow.*" *Slow* (adverb) in *slow-moving,* etc., is well established. — If this use of *slow* in *go slow,* etc., finally wins full recognition, it will be when it comes into general present use ; the fact that it was in good use in older English is neither here nor there.

Good : not properly used for *well,* predicate adjective, after *feel,* etc. " He feels (looks) *good* " really means " He feels (looks) *virtuous* " ; it is used either in ignorance for " He feels (looks) *well* " or as a slang phrase for " I like his looks." — To feel *bad,* to look *bad,* etc., are in good use. (See also **As good as, For good.**)

Gotten : less acceptable in general than *got.* " In England the form *gotten* . . . is almost obsolete (except dialectally), being superseded by *got ;* in United States literature *gotten* is still very common, although Webster 1864 gives it as ' obsolescent.' " (New English

Dictionary, 1901.) — Webster, 1913, gives as past participle *got* and, especially in United States, *gotten.*

Graduated. — Both " He *was graduated* " and " He *graduated* " have good support.

Grand : see **Elegant.**

Grip : a colloquialism in the United States for *traveling bag* (colloquial, *gripsack*).

Guess : acceptable colloquially (especially in the United States) for *think, be fairly sure,* as in " I *guess* he'll be better soon " ; also to express a future act of an irresponsible agent, as in " I *guess* I'll go now."

Gym : see **Exam.**

Had have, had of : unrecognized and intolerable substitutes for *had.* CORRECT : I wish I *had* [not *had have, had of*] gone. (See **Could of.**)

Had ought to : inexcusable mistake for *ought to.*

Half hour. — A man waits for another *a half hour* or *half an hour,* not *a half an hour.*

Hanged, hung. — " With reference to the death penalty *hanged* is preferred to *hung.*" (Webster.)

Happy at, over : see **At.**

Has got : colloquialism for *has* (possesses) and for *must.* PREFERRED : He *has* [not *he's got*] sense. (Strictly, " He's *got* sense " means " He's *acquired* sense.") LESS FAMILIAR : He *must* [familiar, *He's got to*] come. (Here avoid the prevalent and inexcusable pronunciation " gotta.")

Hate, love : colloquially misused in cases where there is no really strong emotion. We should speak as a rule of *liking* or *disliking* such things as cold weather.

Healthy, healthful (wholesome) : often used interchangeably ; but properly *healthy* means possessing health, *healthful* means conducive to health. PRECISE : a *healthful* [not *healthy*] climate ; a *healthy* [not *healthful*] boy ; *wholesome* [not *healthy*] food.

Heap, heaps : now colloquial for *many* in " a *heap* of things," " *heaps* of people." (See **Lot, lots.**)

Help : localism in the United States for *the hired laborer* or *laborers* in " our *help,*" " the hired *help.*"

Help in: see **At.**

Here, there: incorrect (because wholly superfluous) after *this*, *that*, etc., as in "*this here* machine." (Note the allowable colloquial use "this machine *here*," where *here*, though, strictly speaking, superfluous, serves for slightly additional identification.) — *Here* and *there* are colloquial in "I belong *here*" and "I leave *there* tomorrow."

Home (adverb): questionable substitute for *at home* in "No one is *home*"; acceptable colloquialism with *be* (in the sense of *come*), as in "She'll *be home* soon," or in the elliptical "*Home* at last!"

Homy, homey: colloquialism, not generally used, for *homelike*.

Honorable, Reverend. — These adjectives, when used as parts of titles, are capitalized, preceded by *the*, and followed by (1) the Christian name, or the initials, or the title *Mr.* or *Dr.* and (2) the surname. CORRECT: I called on *the Reverend John* [or *J. C.* or *Mr.* or *Dr.*] Tracy. — *The Honorable William* [or *W. O.* or *Mr.*] *Smith* spoke. INCORRECT: *Honorable* Smith, *Hon.* Smith, *Hon. Mr.* Smith, *the Reverend* Tracy, *Rev.* John Tracy, etc.

Human: not generally accepted, though in use, for *human being*. PREFERRED: I hadn't seen *a human being* [less good, *a human*] for days.

Illusion; see **Allusion.**

Illy: not generally accepted; *ill* is the accepted form for both adjective and adverb. CORRECT: I feel *ill* [not *illy*]. — He always behaves *ill* [not *illy*].

Immigrate: see **Emigrate.**

Imply, infer. — A speaker or his statement *implies* (suggests, expresses, though not explicitly) something which a hearer *infers* (draws or deduces) from the statement. *Infer* is constantly used where *imply* is intended. CORRECT: Do you mean to *imply* [not *infer*] that I am deceiving you?

In: colloquially used for *into*, as in "go *in* town," "bring them *in* harmony." Originally English *in* (like Latin *in*) expressed both inclusion within and motion

into ; " the latter relation is now ordinarily expressed by the compound *in-to, into,* but there are various locutions in which (either because the accompanying verb conveys the sense of motion, or through the preservation of an ancient phrase without analysis) *in* still expresses motion from without to within." (New English Dictionary.) — Cf. *fall in line, split in two, put in harness,* etc.

In back : unsupported substitute for *behind, at the back ;* apparently adopted on the analogy of *in front.*

In back of : undesirable and only slightly supported variant of *behind, at the back of,* or of the colloquial *back of ;* apparently formed on the analogy of *in front of.*

In (with) regards to : unrecognized variant for *in (with) regard to, as regards, regarding, with respect to.* The following are supported, but not strongly : *in (with) regard of ; in respect to ; in (with) respect of.*

In search of. — We go in search *of* (not *for*) treasure.

In the circumstances, under the circumstances : both in good use.

Inaugurate : see **Begin.**

Incident : a very common word, meaning *event,* frequently confused in spelling and pronunciation with the unusual word *incidence,* meaning *a falling on,* as in the *incidence* of taxes (cf. *coincidence*), the angle of *incidence.* Be careful to use *incident* rather than *incidence* if you mean *event.*

Incidently : obsolete or at least rare form of *incidentally.* (Avoid the careless pronunciation of *incidentally* that causes the spelling *incidently.* So *accidently ;* see **108.**)

Individual, party, person. — *Individual,* emphasizing the particular (as distinct from the general) nature of the object named, and *party,* referring either to a group of persons or to a person who is party to a legal contract, are used crudely (unless jocosely) for *person.* PREFERRED : A sandy-haired *person* [or *man ;* inexact or jocose, *individual*] entered. — A certain person [not *party*] says he wishes to rent the house.

Infer : see **Imply.**

Info : college slang for information. (See **Exam.**)

Ingenious, ingenuous. — An *ingenious* person is skilful, inventive (cf. *ingenium*, innate quality, genius); an *ingenuous* person is frank, candid (cf. *ingenuus*, inborn, noble, frank).

Initiate : see **Begin.**

Inside of, outside of : colloquially allowable for *inside, outside*, though the superfluous *of* is better omitted. PREFERRED : He keeps well *inside* [rather than *inside of*] the legal limits.

Inside of : colloquially used, chiefly in the United States, in reference to time. PREFERRED : I'll finish *within* [not *inside of*] one week.

Instance : see **Case.**

Invent : see **Discover.**

Invite (noun) : colloquialism, in small favor, for *invitation.*

Irritate : see **Aggravate.**

It : in games, the chief player; hence in slang, chief, principal. COLLOQUIAL : He thinks he's *it.*

Keep : colloquial for *refrain.* PREFERABLE : I can't *refrain from* [or *help*; not *keep from*] contradicting him.

Kind : singular; therefore *these* (*those*) *kind* is ungrammatical. (See **22.**)

Kind of, sort of : undesirable colloquialism for *rather*, etc., when used with an adjective; not allowable with a verb. PREFERRED : I'm *rather* [not *kind of*] sorry. CORRECT : I *rather* [not *kind of* or *sort of*] suspected him.

Kind of a : the *a* is to be omitted. (See **23.**) CORRECT : that *kind of* [not *kind of a*] boat. (The phrase is adjectival, not adverbial.) CORRECT : It's *a rather* [not *kind of a, a kind of*] hard thing to say. COLLOQUIALLY CORRECT : He's *a kind of* [not *kind of a*] salesman.[1]

Lady : see **Gentleman.**

Later on : the *on*, though superfluous, is accepted, particularly in colloquial use.

[1] Many writers and speakers abuse such convenient locutions as these, as if to give intentional vagueness to their expression. I *sort of* imagined he was *a kind of* hard man *to get along with.*

Latter : see **Former.**

Learn : obsolete for *teach.* CORRECT : He will *teach* [not *learn*] me how to swim.

Leave : incorrect for *let.* CORRECT : *Let* [not *leave*] him be. — *Let* [not *leave*] him go. — *Let* [not *leave*] him alone (if the sense is " Don't bother him ").

Less : see **Fewer.**

Liable, likely, apt. — *Likely* emphasizes probability, as in " It is *likely* to snow " ; *liable* expresses openness to something disadvantageous, as in " He is *liable* to imprisonment," or " He is *liable* to be imprisoned " (this use, with infinitive, sometimes questioned) ; *apt* implies habitual tendency and suitability, as in " She is *apt* to exaggerate." CORRECT : He's *likely* [not *liable, apt*] to be satisfied with that report. — It's *likely* [not *apt, liable*] to snow today. INCORRECT : It will *likely* snow. (Avoid *likely* as an adverb except in phrases like *most likely, very likely,* as in " I'm *very likely* mistaken.")

Lib : see **Exam.**

Lick : colloquial for *thrash* or *conquer,* as in " His father *licked* him," or " Our team *licked.*" (" Did not the telegram read as if the Northerners had got another *licking?* " George Meredith, in a letter, 1861.)

Like : incorrect for *as, as if. Like* is never a conjunction. CORRECT : It looks *as if* [not *like*] you had caught me at last. — You don't feel *as* [not *like*] I do. (See **54**, *3, a.*)

Line : an overworked colloquialism in " That's not in my *line,*" " what's your *line ?* " etc. " To get a line on " a person is slang for to get a clue to his motives, pursuits, etc. — " Hard lines " for " ill luck " is a vigorous colloquialism in good standing.

Listen to. — We listen *to* a person ; we listen *to* thunder, or, preferably, *hear* thunder, since *listen to* is appropriate only when close attention is implied. (See **At.**)

The imperative *Listen !* used to introduce a remark is a vulgarism. (See **Say.**)

Literature : loosely used in commercial language to refer to any printed matter. ACCURATE : We inclose circulars [not *literature*] giving rates, references, etc.

Loan : unapproved for general use in place of *lend*. CORRECT : Will you *lend* [not *loan*] me a dollar ? (The use of *loan* for *lend* in financial language has some support, chiefly in the United States. " To *loan* as a verb has to us [the English] a strange sound." — New Standard Dictionary.)

Locate : colloquial for *settle*, intransitive, according to Webster and the New Standard. CORRECT: They *settled* [not *located*] in Virginia. — The business has *established itself* [not *has located*] at Detroit. The following use is without definite support : The detectives *located* the absconder in Texas.

Lose out : see **Win out.**

Lot, lots : a colloquialism for *much* or *many* in " a *lot* of money," " *lots* of reasons " (see **Heap**) ; a slangy colloquialism for *kind of person* in " He's a bad *lot !*"

Love : see **Hate.**

Lovely : see **Elegant.**

Mad : a careless colloquialism for *angry ; mad* properly means *crazy.*

Majority, plurality, most. — *Majority* designates the greater of two numbers, each viewed as part of a total ; it usually refers to persons or their votes. *Plurality* (usually referring to votes) designates a number larger than any other one number within the whole. Use *most* for the greater number in ordinary cases, when a technical majority or plurality is not meant. CORRECT : The 405 votes for O'Grady, out of a total of 1125, constituted a *plurality*, but not a *majority*. — The *majority* of the committee agree with me. (This suggests a formal count of votes.) — *Most* of the committee agree with me. (This suggests an informal test of opinion.) — *Most* [not *the majority*] of this year's cars have some such appliance.

Materialize : somewhat colloquial for " to take bodily or material form " ; improperly used as a general substitute for *appear.* — " Like the verb ' to wire,' now in general use, this particular intransitive no doubt comes from America, where it is common to ' fix up ' an appointment with some one who may ' fail to materialize,'

or to wait for a conveyance that misbehaves itself in a similar way." — London *Daily Chronicle*.

May: see **Can**.

Mean: colloquial in the United States in "*mean*-tempered" or "to feel *mean*."

Mighty: a colloquialism, long in common use, for *very*.

Mistakened: nonexistent form for *mistaken*.

Most: a childish abbreviation for *almost*. CORRECT: I've *almost* [not *most*] finished. (See **Majority**.)

Movies: colloquial or slang for *moving pictures*.

Much, too, very. — With participles use *much*, but not *too* or *very*, when the verbal idea is perceptible; use *very* when the adjective idea prevails. CORRECT: I am *much* [not *very*] *pleased* that our way of living has been so much changed; the old way was *very* charming, but I was *too* tired to like it. — He is *too much* [not *too*] fatigued to go. (*Very pleased, too fatigued*, etc., have some support, but are not in the best use in the United States.) COLLOQUIAL: He isn't *much of an* athlete. You're as *much of a* student as I. *Much of a* is correctly used colloquially to mean *nearly the same*: This is *much of a* size with that.

Mutual, common. — Two or more men may have a *common* purpose or a *common* friend (a friend in common); two men may show *mutual* (interchanged or reciprocal) distrust. Observe this distinction strictly, except when speaking of a *common friend*. Since this term may mean also an *ordinary* or *second-rate friend*, the phrase *mutual friend* is semi-recognized as a substitute. However, a *mutual friend* is an impossibility, since a friend, unlike a friendship, cannot be reciprocal. When possible, without stiffness, avoid the dilemma by saying "a friend of ours," "a friend of us both."

Myself: not acceptable for *I* as subject (except in poetic language) or, as a rule, for *me*. CORRECT: My partner and *I* [not *myself*] refused. — He told my partner and *me* [not *myself*]. — He is a better judge than *I* [preferable to *myself*]. — The same practise holds for *himself, herself, yourself, itself, themselves*, etc.

Naught : see **Aught.**

Near : an undesirable colloquialism in "a *near* escape," "a *near* accident." PREFERRED : A *narrow* escape; *what was almost* an accident.

Near by : colloquial or provincial in all its uses ; as an adjective heard chiefly in the United States. PREFERRED : The church is *near* [or *close at hand ;* not *near by*]. — He lives in a *neighboring* [not *near-by*] town. — The inn is *near* [not *near by*] the crossroads.

Neglect, negligence. — Usually we mean by *negligence* the habit, by *neglect* the actual omission. PRECISE : I'm afraid his *negligence* [not *neglect*] will betray him.—His *neglect* [not *negligence*] of the signals proved disastrous.

Never : misused for *not.* CORRECT : He *didn't come* [not *never came*] this morning, after all !

Newsy : colloquial for *full of news.*

Nice : colloquial for *agreeable. Nice* properly means *discriminating, exact,* or *fastidious.* ACCURATE : He has a *nice* sense of values. — That is a *nice* distinction. — He's over-*nice* about his dress. — She is always pleasant [colloquial, *nice*] to me. — That is an attractive [colloquial, *nice*] house. — She is an *agreeable* [colloquial, *nice*] girl. (See **Elegant.**)

Nights : see **Days.**

No : allowable, somewhat colloquially, for *not any* or *not at all* with comparatives, as in "He's *no* better today," or "She's *no* more in earnest than he is"; but not acceptable otherwise, as, for example, with *different.* CORRECT : Your case is *not at all* [not *no*] different from mine. — The use of *no* in *no good* (see under **No account**) is somewhat similar.

No account, no good : undesirable colloquialism for *worthless, of no account,* in "a *no-account* fellow," "He's *no good* whatever." (See **No.**)

None (with plural verb) : see **18,** NOTE, 3, and **30,** *3.*

Noplace, nowheres : see **Anyplace, anywheres.**

Not much : colloquial (litotes) for *no,* as in, "You think he's brave ? *Not much* he isn't."

Nothing like, nowhere near : careless colloquialisms for *not nearly.* APPROVED : She is *not nearly* [not *nothing like, nowhere near*] so careful as you.

Notoriety, notorious. — An unfavorable sense is so commonly attached to these words that the use of them in a favorable or a noncommittal sense is open to misinterpretation. Say "a poet *of note*" [not *notorious poet*, unless you mean "a poet *of evil repute*"]; say "to avoid *publicity*" [not *notoriety*, unless you mean *unpleasant publicity*].

O, oh. — Use *O* always and only for direct address; use *oh* in all other cases. CORRECT: *O* Harry, look at this! — *O* Lord, save thy people! — *Oh!* I couldn't do that. — *Oh*, but you're wrong. — *Oh*, look at this. (*Oh* in the last two sentences is correct because there is no direct appeal to the person or persons addressed.)

O.K.: frequently used as a noun, verb, or adjective (to give your *O. K.*, when he's *O.K.'d* it, if it's *O.K.*) meaning *indorsement, to indorse*, or *correct, all right;* the term belongs to the business world, or is borrowed from it, and is described by Webster (1913) as "cant."

Obligated: not in good use for *obliged* in the sense of indebted; acceptable for *obliged* in the sense of constrained by moral or legal force, though the simpler and more general *obliged* is preferable. CORRECT: I am much *obliged* [not *obligated*] to him. — I was *obliged* [not *obligated*] because of poor health to resign. PREFERRED: Because of his official position he was *obliged* [less good, *obligated*] to refuse.

Observance, observation. — From our own *observation* we can say that the *observance* of the law is too often notably lax.

Occur: loosely used for *be present, appear*, etc. ACCURATE. Few trees *grow* [not *occur*] on these slopes.

Odds: correctly used either as a plural (The *odds were* two to one) or, less often, as a singular (*What's* the *odds?*).

Of: superfluously inserted after many words; see in this list **Beside, Inside, Off, Remember.**

Off (of, from). — The superfluous *of* or *from* is never to be used with *off*. CORRECT: The bundle fell *off* [or *from;* not *off of, off from*] the shelf. — They were eating *off* [not *off of*] the bare table. — I'm a little *off* [not *off of*] my game just now. (Colloquial.)

Often, sometimes, etc. : loosely used when an adverb of place or an adjective like *many* is required. ACCURATE : This rock is *in some localities* [not *sometimes*] soft and *in others* [not *sometimes*] hard. — *Many of* [not *often*] these crystals are an inch in diameter.

One, oneself, etc. : not to be used to such a degree as to produce stiffness or awkwardness. *A person, a man, anyone,* etc., are possible substitutes ; and forms of *he* (generic) may be used for later reference to the person originally represented by *one.* Say "One (a person) can't assume, you know, that *his* relatives really love *him!*"

Onto : a not fully recognized word which is making its way in spite of opposition. Need is felt for a preposition analogous to *into,* expressing motion *on to* an object.

Oral, verbal. — A *verbal* message (one in words) may be *oral* (spoken) or written. CORRECT : I gave him that order *orally* [not *verbally,* since the meaning is *by word of mouth*]. — There were a few *verbal* inaccuracies [i.e., inaccuracies in *words*].

Ostensible, ostentatious. — Your *ostensible* (avowed, apparent) partner may or may not be an *ostentatious* (showy, pretentious) man.

Outloud : almost without support for *aloud.*

Outside of : see **Inside of.**

Pants : objectionable colloquialism for *trousers.*

Parcels post : not officially recognized as a variant of *parcel post.*

Part, portion. — Though *portion* may be used as equivalent to *part,* its particular meaning is an *assigned* or *allotted* part. ACCURATE : the first *part* [rather than *portion*] of the summer ; your *portion* of the estate.

Part from, with. — A person parts *with* (relinquishes) his money ; preferably, persons part *from* (go away from) each other, part *with* in this sense being rare.

Partake of : rather stilted as well as inaccurate for *take* in "*partake of* refreshments." Properly *partake of* (transitive) means *have a share in, participate in.*

Partial : to be avoided in the sense of *incomplete* whenever it might be understood to mean *biased.* AMBIGUOUS :

This is a *partial* [biased ? incomplete ?] account of the affair. CLEAR : a *partial* bulkhead, a *partial* payment, a *partial* eclipse ; an *incomplete* statement ; a *prejudiced* statement. (Legally "*partial* verdict" means a verdict on part of the charge ; popularly it might be taken to mean an *unfair* verdict.)

Partial to : colloquial for *fond of*, in "I'm *partial to* that room."

Party : see **Individual.**

Patron : inaccurate for *customer*. *Patron* properly refers to one who (as a father ; cf. Latin *pater*) protects and countenances art, charity, etc.

Patronize : inaccurate for *trade with*. You *patronize* only when you either are or play the *patron* (which see) ; to *patronize* a shoemaker is, properly, to treat him with condescension.

Penny : see **Cent.**

Per : questionable, though growing in favor, as an anglicized preposition used with English as well as with Latin words. (Webster, 1913, and New English Dictionary, 1909, record the word without derogatory comment ; the New Standard, 1913, speaks of *per day, per invoice*, as "slang phrases or commercial vulgarisms.") PREFERRED : He receives $1000 a year [not *per* year]. — In general use, the English phrases like *a year, a day*, are preferable to *per annum, per diem*, etc. — Avoid such needless perversions as "Please send circular *as per* your letter [i.e., the circular referred to in your letter] of August 25th."

Per cent, percentage. — *Per cent* or *per cent.* is an adverb meaning *in the hundred* (Latin *per centum*) ; *percentage* is a noun meaning *rate in the hundred, rate per cent*, colloquially used to mean a part or proportion of any whole ; properly there is no noun *percent.* CORRECT : Seven *per cent* [adverb] is a generous interest. — The *percentage* [not *percent*] of deaths is high. — The *percentage* [not *percentage per hundred*] was too high. — LOOSELY COLLOQUIAL : A large *percentage* [accurate, *proportion*] of those present were hostile.

Persecute, prosecute. — Boys sometimes persecute (not *prosecute*) small dogs; Nero *persecuted* (not *prosecuted*) the Christians; a firm *prosecutes* (not *persecutes*) a plan; one man legally *prosecutes* (not *persecutes*) another, though the legal *prosecution* may be a form of *persecution* (i.e., pursuit with intent to injure or harass).

Persecution of. — We speak of persecution *of* (not *against*) the Christians.

Phase: see **Element.**

Phone: colloquial abbreviation for *telephone.* (See **Auto.**)

Photo: colloquial abbreviation for *photograph;* not in general favor. (See **Auto.**)

Piano, violin, vocal, voice: unacceptable for *piano lessons, violin lessons, singing lessons* or *lessons in vocal music.*

Piece: provincial for a short portion of time or distance. ACCEPTED: a long *distance* ahead [not *quite a piece* ahead].

Plead. — The past tense is regularly *pleaded; plead* (or *pled*), as in "Yesterday he *plead* guilty" is not now usual; Webster marks it "colloquial."

Plenty: colloquial as an adverb or adjective; regularly a noun. PREFERRED: It's large *enough* [not *plenty* large; colloquial, *plenty* large enough]. — Money is *plentiful* [colloquial, undesirable, *plenty*]. — There are *abundant* [provincial, *plenty*] provisions here. — You'll need *plenty* [chiefly in the United States, *a plenty*] of warm clothing.

Plurality: see **Majority.**

Poorly: provincial for *ill* in "He feels *poorly* today."

Popular: properly used to mean *of* or *suitable to* or *approved or liked by the general public.* ACCURATE: I like that. [NOT: That's *popular* with me.] — Many people like him. [NOT: He's *popular* with many people.] — He's *popular* [not *popular with the people*].

Portion: see **Part.**

Postal: colloquial for *postal card.* PREFERRED: I sent a *postal card* [or *card;* less good, *postal*] yesterday. (*Post card,* the term used in England, is used here

for private, unofficial cards similar to the official postal cards.)

Posted : colloquial for *informed* in " Keep me well *posted.*"

Practical, practicable. — Of two *practical* plans (valuable in practice or action) one may not be at the moment *practicable* (able to be put into practice). We can say that a man is *practical* (disposed to act rather than to theorize), but never that he is *practicable.*

Predominant : loosely used as if capable of comparison ; the word means *prevailing.* CORRECT : Ambition is *predominant* in his character. Ambition is more marked [not *more predominant*] in his character than cruelty.

Predominate (adjective) : an apparently mistaken and rare form of *predominant.*

Predominate (verb) : not in good general use for *dominate* (rule), *predominate over.* CORRECT : He *dominates* [not *predominates*] the situation. — Here good sense *predominates over* [not *predominates*] folly. — Here good sense *predominates.*

Prefer : improperly followed by *than, rather than.* CORRECT : I prefer walking *to* [not *than ;* not *rather than*] riding. — I prefer to go ; I don't wish to stay here. [NOT : I prefer to go *rather than* (or *than*) to to stay here.]

Preferable : incorrectly used with *more,* as if capable of comparison. CORRECT : Your way is *preferable* [not *more preferable*].

Prejudice in favor of, against. — We have a prejudice *against* a thing, but *in favor of* [rather than *towards* or *for*] it.

Presume : colloquial for *imagine, suppose,* as in " I *presume* that's true." (See **Expect.**)

Pretty : in good colloquial use for an unemphatic *very.*

Preventative : an " unnecessary and irregularly formed " doublet of *preventive* (Webster). CORRECT : *Preventives* [not *preventatives*] were speedily employed. — We adopted *preventive* [not *preventative*] measures.

Previous to, subsequent to : wrongly used (as if *previous* and *subsequent,* adjectives, were adverbs) for *previously to,* or *before, subsequently to,* or *after.* CORRECT:

The debate was *previous* (*subsequent*) to the nomination. — This happened *previously to* [or *before*; not *previous to*] the nomination. — *After* [less good, *subsequently to*; not *subsequent to*] the nomination, much bad feeling existed.

Proposition : slangy colloquialism for *project, problem,* etc., as in "He's a hard *proposition.*" — "That's a tough *proposition.*" — Reserve *proposition* for what is proposed or offered.

Prosecute : see **Persecute.**

Proven : not fully established, but used with growing frequency for *proved,* the regular form. (*Proven* originated in Scottish legal language.)

Providing (that) : in less common use than *provided (that),* but recognized. (New English Dictionary.)

Quite : colloquial for *rather* or *very*; its real meaning is *completely.* Avoid *quite* for *very,* whenever, so far as the context indicates, it could mean *completely* as well as *rather* or *very.* AMBIGUOUS : That is *quite* satisfactory. ALLOWABLE : He is *quite* sick. — It's *quite* cold today. PRECISE : He is *very* sick. — It's *rather* cold. — He is *quite* [i.e., wholly] innocent.

Quite a few : provincial in the United States for *a number of, several.*

Quite a good deal, quite a little, etc.: colloquial for *a good deal, much.*

Radical : as adjective, means *thoroughgoing, fundamental*; hence, a radical is one (not necessarily an anarchist, or even an *extreme* innovator) who advocates *thoroughgoing* changes. *Radical, radically* are often used as vague synonyms of *great, considerably.*

Raise (noun) : colloquial as commonly used in the United States. PREFERRED : I received an *increase* [colloquial, *had a raise*] in salary. — I succeeded in *obtaining* [colloquial, *made a raise of*] a ramshackle cart.

Raise (verb) : confined chiefly to the United States, especially the southern part, in the sense of *rear* or *bring up* as applied to children.

Rarely (or) ever, seldom (or) ever: errors for *rarely if ever, hardly ever, seldom if ever, seldom or never*, etc.

Rather: *had rather* and *would rather* both idiomatic. BUT: I *would* [clumsy *had*] rather *have been* told.

Rather of a: an intolerable phrase. CORRECT: He's *a rather good* athlete [or, colloquial, *something of an* athlete; never *rather of an* athlete].

Real: an ungrammatical colloquialism in the United States for *very* or *really*. CORRECT: He's *very* [not *real*] amusing. — This is a *really* [not *real*] serious question. (See **26**.) — Note that *real* is often misused for *true;* see the dictionary for *real, true, actual*.

Rebellion, revolt, revolution. — "*Rebellion* is open, organized, and armed resistance to constituted authority; *revolution* implies the overthrow of one government and the substitution of another; *revolt* . . . denote[s] an armed uprising against authority, but one of less extent than a rebellion." (Webster.) CORRECT: The suppression of Shays's *rebellion*, the American *Revolution*, a *revolt* among the prisoners.

Reckon: provincial for *think, suppose*.

Recollect: undesirable as a general term for *remember*. "*Recollect*, when distinguished from *remember*, implies a conscious or express effort of memory." (New English Dictionary.) Thus we may with effort *recollect* the various points made in an argument.

Recommendation: see **Character**.

Regular: colloquial substitute for *real*. PREFERABLE: He's a *real* [better, *true ;* not *regular*] hero.

Relative, relation: both well established for *kinsman ; relative* is more common in colloquial use.

Remember. — *Of* after *remember* is superfluous. CORRECT: I *remember* [not *remember of*] saying that.

Reminisce: "still somewhat colloquial or jocular" (New English Dictionary, 1914) for *remember, indulge in reminiscence*.

Rendition: questionable in the sense of an artistic reproduction or interpretation. PREFERRED: Her *rendering* [or *interpretation ;* less good, *rendition*] of the sonata was brilliant. (Only the Century Dictionary brands this use as objectionable. Webster and the

New English Dictionary mark it as of the United States.) — The use of *rendition* for *translation* (" the close *rendition* of the text ") is marked " now U. S." in the New English Dictionary.

Reputation : see **Character.**

Research (verb), **researcher** : not well established, though recorded (Webster, 1913, New English Dictionary, 1914) for *to engage in research* or *one engaged in research.*

Respectably, respectfully, respectively. — A man conducts himself *respectably* (in a way *worthy* of respect); he speaks *respectfully* (in a way *full* of respect); the terms republic and monarchy apply *respectively* (relating to each in the order named, i.e., distributively) to France and to England. — *Respectively* should be used with care. Do not sign a letter " Yours *respectively.*"

Reune, reunion (verbs) : college slang, apparently gaining some foothold; appearing chiefly in the phrase " *reuning* (or *reunioning*) classes."

Revenge : see **Avenge.**

Reverend : see **Honorable.**

Revolt, revolution : see **Rebellion.**

Ride, drive. — " The tendency of present usage is toward the following distinction: one *drives* in a private or hired carriage; one *rides* on horseback, in any large public conveyance (as in a street car or an omnibus), or in any conveyance not drawn by an animal (as a motor car or a balloon)." (Webster, 1913.)

Rig : provincial for *outfit, costume,* or *horse and carriage.*

Right : colloquial for *exactly* in " *right* there," " *right* now," etc.; colloquial for *very* in " *right* sorry," etc.

Right ahead, right along : colloquial in the United States for *at once* or *without stopping,* as in " Run *right ahead,*" " He talked *right along* for an hour."

Right away, right off : colloquial in the United States for *at once, immediately.*

Run : colloquial in the United States for *conduct, manage,* as in " to *run* the business," " *run* the bazaar," " a father *run* by his children "; accepted in the senses *cause to run, operate,* as in " *run* a horse," " *run* the car," " *run* a sewing machine."

Sacrilegious : often spelled and pronounced as if the word were sac*religious*. The word is not derived from *religion*, and should be pronounced with the first *i* short, as in *it*, and the *e* long, as in *legion*. See list of words often misspelled, **108**.

Same (**the**) : unacceptable, even in business language, for *it*, *they*, etc. CORRECT : We have sent the parcel by express and hope *it* [not *same*, *the same*] will reach you safely. (Legal usage allows *the same* for *it:* If said tenant defaces *the same*, etc.)

Say : a vulgarism when used as an imperative to introduce a remark. (See **Listen.**)

Scare (noun) : accepted in such phrases as " a war *scare*," " prices depressed by (a) *scare* "; more colloquial in " gave me quite a *scare*."

Scare (verb) : see **Frighten, scare.**

Seldom (**or**) **ever** : see **Rarely** (**or**) **ever.**

Sensible, sensitive. — Though you are *sensible of* (aware of) animosity in your audience, you may or may not be *sensitive to* (susceptible to, easily affected by) that animosity.

Set : see **Bunch, crowd.**

Settle : colloquial for *pay* with *bill* as object. Properly, you *settle* a difficulty or an account, but *pay* a bill.

Shape : inaccurate colloquialism for *condition*. PREFERRED : The goods arrived in poor *condition* [not *shape*]. — He's in bad *condition* [not *shape*] for the game.

Show : colloquial for *chance* and for *play*. PREFERRED : He hasn't a *chance* [not *show*]. — Let's go to the *theater* [or *play ;* not *show*] tonight. (*Show* is in good use for entertainments and exhibitions that are chiefly spectacular, as moving-picture *show*, automobile *show*.)

Show up : undesirable colloquialism for *come* (*at last*), *be present ;* also for *expose*. PREFERRED : He finally *arrived* [not *showed up*] about ten. — If this goes on, I'll *expose* his methods [not *show him up*].

Sign up : colloquial (undesirable) for *sign*, *sign a contract.*

Similar : loosely used for *the same* or *about the same*. CORRECT : Please cut me off *the same* [not *a similar*]

length. — He walked four miles yesterday, and *about the same* [not *a similar*] distance today.

Simply : slang for *really:* This is *really* [not *simply*] delicious.

Sleeper : see **Diner.**

Slow (adverb) : see **Go slow.**

Smoker : see **Diner.**

So : preferable to *as* for the correlative of *as* in negative assertions or in questions implying a negative answer. PREFERRED : He is not *so* [less good, *as*] unreliable as I thought. — Is he *so* [less good, *as*] sophisticated as he would have us believe?

So, such ("exclamatory *so*") : colloquial and monotonously overworked for merely intensive purposes, in place of *very, great,* etc. In speech or writing that is not familiar, unless you are referring to a definite standard of comparison, say "Queen Elizabeth was, according to all accounts, *very* [or *extremely ;* not *so*] hot-tempered"; "He always manifests *great* [not *such*] impatience with foolish questions." See also **Such a (cheap car).**

Some (for *somewhat*) : see **Any.**

Someplace : see **Anyplace.**

Something (adverb) : questionable variant for *somewhat, very.* COLLOQUIAL : He's *something* under twenty. — UNDESIRABLE : The storm was *something* terrible ! (In each case, though the construction of *something* is like that of a noun, the speaker's meaning is adverbial.)

Sometimes : see **Often.**

Someways, somewheres : see **Anyways, Anywheres.**

Sort of : see **Kind of.**

Special (verb) : unrecognized coinage for *send by special delivery.* (See **4.**)

Spectators : see **Audience.**

Splendid : see **Elegant.**

Stand : a good colloquialism in "I won't *stand* it any longer"; also a vigorous colloquialism in "I won't *stand* for it," though hardly appropriate in any formal context, like a dignified business letter.

Start in, up : undesirable colloquialism for *begin, start.* PREFERRED : He *began* [or *started ;* not *started in*]

to object. — He *started* [not *started up*] a small business.

State : pretentious for *say*. CORRECT : He *said* [not *stated*] that he'd lost a dime. — He *stated* [set forth, said more or less formally] that the business was solvent.

Station : see **Depot**.

Steer (noun) : slang for *instructions, directions*. ACCEPTABLE : He gave me *directions* [not *a steer*] to get over the mountain.

Stimulant, stimulus, stimulation. — "*Stimulus* is the general term ; *stimulant* is more concrete and commonly suggests a temporary, often an alcoholic, *stimulus*." (Webster.) — *Stimulation* refers to the action of the *stimulus* or the *stimulant*.

Stop : colloquial for *stay*, which is preferable even in conversation. PREFERRED : I *stayed* [not *stopped*] at the Traymore.

Stop off, stop over : in good colloquial use.

Stranger : see **Alien**.

Subsequent to : see **Previous to**.

Succeed in : see **At**.

Success : colloquial in the sense of the person or thing achieving the success. PRECISE : The play was *very successful* [not *a great success*]. — He has *succeeded* [or *is successful ;* not *is a great success*]. — He always *succeeds in* convincing me [not *is a success at* convincing me]. (See **At**.)

Such : see **So**.

Such a (**cheap car**) : acceptable colloquially for *so cheap a car*, if the meaning is unmistakable. Note, however, the two possible meanings of the advertisement :

> You'll have to look far
> For such a cheap car,

which *properly* means "for a cheap car of such nature," but *probably* means "for so cheap a car."

Suffragette : "derisive or cant" (Webster) for a woman suffragist.

Summers : see **Days**.

Sunday, week-end, etc. (verbs) : unrecognized coinages for *spend Sunday, spend the week end,* etc. (See **4.**)

Sure : colloquial for *surely.* ACCEPTABLE : Tired ? I *surely* [not *sure*] am.

Suspect : see **Expect.**

Take : colloquial in many senses, as, for example, *to be attractive.* PREFERRED : That's *attractive* to most people. [NOT : That *takes well.*] — See the dictionary.

Take in : colloquial for *mislead, attend, visit, understand, accept as true,* etc. PREFERRED : I was completely *misled* [not *taken in*]. — Did you *visit* [not *take in*] West Point ? — I didn't *understand* [or *grasp,* rather than *take in*] what he said. — I didn't accept all that as true [or *believe all that ;* not *take all that in*].

Talk : colloquial for address in " He gave a short *talk.*"

Tasty : objectionable colloquialism for *tasteful,* used to characterize a person, a room, furniture, dress, etc. ; allowable colloquialism for *savory,* used with *food,* etc.

Team : properly two or more animals harnessed together, or two or more persons working together ; provincial for one or more animals and the vehicle (cf. *double team,* used in the United States) ; provincial in the United States for the vehicle, as in " a horse and *team.*"

That : see **This.**

Theirselves : mistaken form for *themselves.*

There : see **Here.**

Thing : often vaguely used for some more specific noun. ACCURATE : Child labor is one of the most important *problems* [not *things*] before the people today. — (See **5,** NOTE 2.)

Think for : not now in good use for *expect, suppose.* CORRECT : You'll find that harder than you supposed it would be [or *expected ;* not *thought for*].

This, that : allowable, though often objected to, in colloquial and even in more formal use, as adverbs equivalent to *so, thus,* etc. Note President Wilson's use of the phrase in the address to the Senate, January 22, 1917 : " We are *that* much nearer a definite discussion of the peace which shall end the present war."

(The New English Dictionary admits the use without any qualification.) SOMEWHAT INFORMAL: I didn't mean to stay *this* long. — It is fully *that* high. PRECISE: I didn't mean to stay *so* long *as this* [or, very formally, *thus long*]. — It is fully *as* high *as that.*

Through: colloquial in the United States for *finished* in "I'm *through* now," or "I'm *through* with it" (see **Done**); loosely used for *by, in,* etc., to express such ideas as agency or place, as in "The result will be announced *through* [accurate, *by* or *in*] the *Daily News.*"

Throughout: incorrectly used as if meaning merely *through; throughout* means *entirely through.* CORRECT: Telegrams continued to arrive *throughout* the day [not *throughout* the *whole* day].

Thus: loosely used at the beginning of sentences to serve almost any transitional function, for example, that of *moreover;* use *thus* only for *in this way, in accordance with this, in these circumstances, on this ground,* or similar expressions.

To: incorrectly used for *at* with *to be,* as in "He's away *at* [not *to*] school"; incorrectly inserted after *been* as in "Where have you *been* [*to*] today?"

Together: often superfluous, as in "connect *together,*" "coöperate *together,*" "compare *together.*"

Too: see **Much.**

Transpire: incorrect for *happen.* CORRECT: It *transpired* [came to light] that the family were trying to conceal what had *happened* [not *transpired*].

Treat with: incorrect for *treat* or *treat of.* CORRECT: He *treats* [not *treats with*] his subject frankly. — In this speech he *treats of* [not *treats with*] municipal corruption. — Our lawyer will *treat with* [negotiate with] hers.

Trolley: see **Electric.**

Two first, the: inaccurate for *the first two.* CORRECT: *The first two* [not *the two first*] witnesses were the sisters of the defendant.

Ugly: colloquial in the United States for *unpleasant* in "an *ugly* story," an "*ugly*-tempered beast."

Unbeknownst : provincial error for *without* (*my*) *knowledge.*

Under the circumstances : see **In the circumstances.**

Underhand, underhanded : both forms supported ; but *underhanded* is a " loose use." (The literal force of *underhand — under the hand* — in " an *underhand* act " is lost if *underhanded* is used.)

Uninterested : see **Disinterested.**

Unique : inaccurate for *rare, odd.* CORRECT : These walnut four posters are *very rare* [not *unique*]. — This is a *unique* copy [i.e., the only one of its kind]. — By its very meaning, *unique* is incapable of comparison. One style is *more unusual* (not *more unique*) than another.

Universally : correctly used to mean *without exception ;* therefore " very (so, more) *universally* " is inaccurate and " *universally* by all " is redundant.

Up : superfluously added to many verbs : *add up, decorate up, end up, open up, spend up, train up,* etc. Use *up* with verbs only when it contributes definitely to the meaning (start *up,* get *up,* bring *up*) or when it is found in good colloquial use (live *up* to, sum *up,* hold *up*). Consult the dictionary.

Up against it, up to you : slang, of a vigorous and in some cases unobjectionable nature.

Up to date : acceptable generally as an adverb (to bring a record *up to date*) ; acceptable colloquially as an adjective (an *up-to-date* laboratory). — The New English Dictionary quotes the *Westminster Gazette,* 1893 : " The two gentlemen . . . who invented the Gaiety burlesque 'up to date' — and gave this detestable phrase to the language."

Upward(s) of : provincial error for *hardly as many as, about, not exactly,* as in " *upward(s)* of twenty people "; acceptable colloquially in the sense of *more than.*

Varsity : see **Exam.**

Verbal : see **Oral.**

Verdict : loosely used for *opinion.* Reserve *verdict* for official decisions, as of a jury, or at least for opinion publicly and formally expressed. ACCURATE : It

seems to be the *opinion* [not *verdict*] of all who have known him that he is reliable. This overwhelming defeat was the popular *verdict* against him.

Very : an overworked word. (See **Much, Quite.**)

Violin : see **Piano.**

Vocal, voice : see **Piano.**

Vocation : see **Avocation.**

Want : acceptable colloquialism for *wish* in the sense of *feel the need of* (hence, *desire*).

Want in (out, off, through) : unlicensed local expressions for *want to come in*, etc.

Way : a childish colloquialism for *far, at some distance.* PREFERRED : The sleigh was *far* [not *way* ; not *away*] ahead of us.

Ways : incorrect for *way* when preceded by *a, this*, etc. (singular). CORRECT : It's a short *way* [not *ways*] beyond this *wood* [not *woods*]. (See **Woods.**)

Week-end (verb) : see **Sunday.**

Whereabouts (adverb) : an undesirable colloquialism for *where.*

While : improperly used as an equivalent of *and* (see **51,** *2*) ; carelessly overused as an equivalent of *though* (see **54,** *3, e*).

Wholesome : see **Healthy.**

Win out : colloquial. **Lose out,** with less support, belongs to the slang of sports or business.

Wire : colloquial and rather commercial as noun or verb meaning *telegram, to telegraph*, etc. PREFERRED : I'll answer by *telegraph* [not *wire*]. — I'll send a *telegram* [not a *wire*]. — I'll *telegraph* [not *wire*] him my answer.

Wireless : colloquial as a noun (by *wireless,* send a *wireless*) ; recognized as a verb, "rare," by the New Standard, 1913, which, like Webster, 1913, recognizes *wirelessly*, adverb.

With respect to : see **In (with) regards to.**

Without : not now in good use for *unless* (or *except*). CORRECT : He won't bite *unless* [not *without*] you bother him. — *Except* in this sense, though apparently somewhat old-fashioned, is recorded with good support by the best dictionaries.

Witness : incorrect for *see* in reference to a person or thing ; inaccurate and pretentious for *see* with an event as object, unless the presence of the observer or the spectacular nature of the event is to be emphasized. CORRECT : I *saw* [not *witnessed*] him get off the train. — I *saw* [not *witnessed*] some fine cars. — Did you *witness* the accident ? — I *witnessed* the boat race.

Woods : incorrect for *wood* when preceded by *a, this,* etc. (singular), though correctly used as a plural with *the,* as in " in the *woods.*"

Worst kind, the (the worst way) : undesirable colloquialism for *very much, very badly* (itself colloquial). ACCEPTED : I want it *very much* [colloquial, *very badly ;* unaccepted, *the worst way.*]

Write-up : " journalistic cant " in the United States for an *account,* a *notice,* usually laudatory or " puffing."

Exercise 1

Use correctly and appropriately in sentences the following words :

enormity
transpire
character, reputation
aggravate, irritate, annoy
practical, practicable
alien
notorious
credible, creditable, credulous
antagonize
part, portion
expect, suspect, anticipate
observance, observation
quite
stop, stay
balance
infer, imply
claim, assert, maintain
calculate
avocation, vocation
coincidence
affect
effect (*verb, noun*)
fix
recollect, remember
patronize
element, feature, factor, phase
couple
individual, party, person
depot
plenty
between, among
liable, likely, apt

Exercise 2

Rewrite the following sentences, substituting for any word improperly or inappropriately used a suitable word. Use the dictionary, and be prepared to justify your decision for or against a word.

1. Campers will favor this improvement from the fact that bungalows are more convenient than tents. 2. He told me that much money was pledged, but he confided, "Not a cent has been as yet paid in." 3. Let us await until the outcome is sure. 4. The river flows in back of the college gardens. 5. The robbers climbed by a vine onto the porch roof, just exactly like that one did last summer, you recollect. 6. I expect he prefers to go anywhere than to stay here. 7. We must not underestimate the influence of the newspaper, which is the most powerful thing we have in our homes. 8. We should be slow to charge a person for lacking this trait. 9. The average student theme uses an uncanny style and bad diction. 10. He stands at his post on the floundering steamer, which will never again prow the sea. 11. Thank you for giving us the work. We assure you the same will have our careful attention. 12. The newspaper influences most every thought of the child ; it shapes his ideals, it is his consultation. 13. A hero of the sea was disclosed last night through a collision which was a near tragedy. To avoid notoriety, the hero declines to give his name. 14. Francis Scott Key seemed, since writing "The Star Spangled Banner," to belong to the whole country. 15. Walt Whitman is one of a few native poets who is recognized internationally. 16. The Welsh were the remainder Celts of the former Celtic population. 17. Their forces are as intact as ever. 18. He thus justified the character of a careless lad that he had obtained. 19. The threat of starving out the foe was thus retorted. 20. The case isn't that simple ; we can't treat it like we usually treat such cases. 21. Russia, due to her vast area and population, is very invulnerable. 22. Such legends could be excepted only by a very credible age. 23. The steamship

was almost fatally injured, but a revenue cutter rushed to its rescue. 24. For many children of today the movies substitute the reading of books. 25. The predominate affect is unfortunate. 26. This effected me strangely. 27. His death comes as a shock, for he has been ill only briefly. When questioned, his secretary gave out for publication the ensuing facts. 28. They are about at the end of their rope ; their leaders admit as much. 29. She spoke listlessly ; but I didn't realize how very disinterested she was in our efforts until I spoke with her after. 30. One side showed equally as much strength as the other, throughout the whole struggle. 31. Recollecting the explanations made by the balance of the party, I noticed that this boy's was identical. (Would you accept " identically the same " in place of " identical " ?) 32. His statement seems to infer that your play is weak in climatic affect. 33. I kind of thought that I could fix the watch myself, but now I guess I have spoiled it. 34. She attracts the needy as steel attracts a magnate.

Exercise 3

Rewrite the following sentences, using the proper one of the two or more expressions suggested; write a sentence correctly using each word that you reject.

1. I am, sir, yours (respectively, respectfully), H. A. Smith. 2. I was very much (afraid, frightened, scared) that your (verdict on, opinion of) my work would be unfavorable. 3. I found that I had (less, fewer) friends than I had thought. 4. He is very (likely, liable, apt) to do you a kindness when you are least (expecting, anticipating) it. 5. They had a (common, mutual) interest in the success of the plan. 6. He (claimed, asserted) that we were (antagonizing, offending) our opponents. 7. What do you (imply, infer) as to the reliability of the (testimony, evidence) he has given ? 8. How did the (continual, continuous) recurrence of that theme (affect, effect) you ? 9. (Apparently, evidently) he's just trying to (irritate,

aggravate) me ; but of course I may misjudge him. 10. Milton's work is (noted, notorious) for its many classical (illusions, allusions). 11. He (admitted, confessed) that his friend was too (credible, credulous).

Exercise 4

Explain the difference in meaning between the words indicated in each sentence or group of sentences.

1. He is a **disinterested** observer. He is an **uninterested** observer. 2. The place is (**unusual, unique**). 3. It seems to me that you are (**implying, inferring**) a great deal. 4. The change **affects** my opinion. The change **effects** an improvement. 5. He did not **accept** my excuse. He did not **except** anyone in his condemnation. 6. She was **sensitive** to rebuke. She was **sensible** of disapproval in his manner. 7. She **behaved** shockingly. She **demeaned** herself shockingly. 8. His survey was **partially** made. His survey was **partly** made. 9. He was (**apparently, evidently**) quite (**unaware, unconscious**) of the scorn in her manner and voice.

Exercise 5

In the following sentences choose the proper preposition from those suggested. If more than one may be used, explain the resulting difference in meaning. If only one is given, adopt or reject it.

1. She danced gracefully (in, into) the pavilion. 2. We entered (in, into) correspondence (to, with) the firm. 3. He placed the note (in, into, within) the envelope. 4. The matter will be settled (within, in, inside of) two days. 5. He pleased his mother (in, by) pursuing this course. 6. It's hardly fair to compare this project (to, with) a bubble, though ! 7. (Between, next to) each row of plants he dug a trench. 8. This maple leaf is quite dif-

ferent (to, than, from) that. 9. I am sorry to differ (from, with) you. 10. Do you remember (of) meeting my father? 11. They attempted to make trouble (among, between) capital and labor. 12. There is some disagreement (between, among) the judges. 13. He climbed (on, onto, upon) the roof by the aid of a convenient ladder. 14. He speaks very intelligently (on, upon) this question. 15. He is notorious for his persecutions (of, against) the Christians. 16. He fell off (of) the roof (to, onto) the ground. 17. She enjoyed real popularity (among, in) her wide circle of readers. 18. She awaited (for) his answer with unconcealed agitation.

Exercise 6

Write sentences using each of the following words in the comparative and superlative degrees, if the word is capable of change to show degree. If it is not, how would you indicate greater or greatest degree of approach to the quality expressed? (Use the dictionary; see *Degree* in the Index.)

unique	sufficient	bad
perfect	some	absolute
cloudless	predominant	continual
good	universal	satisfied
intense	ill	masterly
intact	unanimous	impatient
little	equal	immune
extreme	incredible	immortal

Exercise 7

Strike out every superfluous word; rewrite the sentence if necessary.

1. He is the common friend of us all. 2. It seems apparent that the report is true. 3. The ship is ordered to return back to port. 4. I do not remember of any

such agreement with any firm outside of the city. 5. This mechanism will not stand hardly any strain. 6. He arrived at Paris, only from thence to renew again his journey, following after the fugitive. 7. No other classes other than the Seniors can use that room there. 8. I am equally as much perturbed as you. 9. Each page should be numbered throughout. 10. There is a general outcry being revived again on all sides in protest against our unpreparedness. 11. The paper fluttered off of the table and fell down to the floor. I picked it up, folded it, and put it safely inside of my vest pocket. 12. Rossa was one of those of the extreme or radical party who had an intense hatred of all of the things that were English.

Exercise 8

1. In what kind of context (informal, colloquial, formal, etc.) would you use the expressions indicated in the following sentences? Suggest for each word one of similar meaning that you would use in a different context.

1. He is a **pretty** fine **fellow.** 2. That is a work of **supererogation.** 3. She is a **garrulous** old **party, upon my word!** 4. Fortunately, he did not **witness** my **discomfiture.** 5. Put some **vim** into your work. 6. Their labor is for the **succor** of the **destitute**; it is without **remuneration** or **acclamation.** 7. We need a man of **grit.** 8. Good! That's **bound** to succeed! 9. There are seven hundred candidates for **matriculation.** 10. Father will **foot** the bill. 11. No **communication** was forthcoming. 12. The Canon **resides** at the Residence, within the Cathedral close. 13. She's a **mighty** attractive girl! 14. Quinine is an effective **prophylactic** against fever. 15. He came in the **nick of time.** 16. Modern dramatic art tends to **utilize** the **proscenium.** 17. I have a *femme de ménage* — a **sort** of cross between a housekeeper and a maid of all work. (Can you find an exact equivalent for *femme de ménage?*) 18. Shame

soiled thy song, and song **assoiled** thy shame. 19. A **let** occurs whenever a player is prevented or impeded in his attempt to return the ball, by any opponent. (Cf. also : This is " to the **let** and disturbance of the common law.") 20. He's a **youngster** with a good deal of **pluck**.

2. Criticize the vocabulary used in the following passage, particularly as regards appropriateness. Suggest substitute words or phrases for any expressions in the text to which you object :

Mr. President, there is not anything conceived in the brain, or constructed by the hand of finite, fallible man that is perfect. One who recognizes man's mental and moral limitations, and the great variety of interests to be subserved, would not expect this measure or any other measure that might originate with this body to be free of all objectionable features. Certainly the proponents of this bill do not claim for it perfection, or in very large degree the elements of inerrancy. But it is as good as its predecessors. It is as good as the men who framed it, and the men who framed it are as good as any other class of men who occupy places in this Chamber. . . .

But there is another snag in the stream which we have encountered, which I shall notice briefly. The erudite, far-seeing senior Senator from Nevada has a scheme of marvelous magnitude, which he has, with the pertinacity of purpose which characterized the elder Cato in his antagonism to Carthage, urged upon the attention of the Senate of the United States. I trust, Mr. President, that I may at this juncture be permitted to pay to the honorable Senator the tribute of my respect and admiration. He is one of those splendid dreamers whose vision permits him to stand within the shadow of the night and look beyond it toward the coming light and see, far off, with trance-prophetic eye, the consummation of the centuries. Maybe he is just a little bit ahead of his time. I know that the American people cannot afford or expect his wonderful plan, so marvelous in its conception, intricate in its details, and, to my mind, well nigh impossible of operation, to

be put into effect at this time. So far-reaching, vast, and comprehensive is the system offered by the able Senator that he proposes by " coöperation and coördination " of some sort to take possession of the water from the time the mist in the heaven is condensed into the drop of rain, conduct it to the earth, harness it, control it, and direct its course until it becomes a part of the great restless, rolling sea.

CHAPTER TWO

SENTENCES

Good use in sentences demands good grammar and clear thinking

7. WHY should good use demand that sentences be grammatically correct? The answer is, *economy*. It is true that we can usually work out the meaning of ungrammatical expression, if we stop to think; but rapid reading and quick understanding depend on high standards of construction in sentences, just as rapid work in factories depends on standardized machine construction. The standards of sentence construction are *clear thought* and *sure knowledge of forms* of words. Failure in either makes bad sentences. Hurried and slovenly thought always results in weakened expression. The meaning is blurred, because the thought is not worked out. Essential elements are dropped, and the reader's imagination is asked to supply them. But one must not count on the reader to imagine anything.

"Buyers like our wares better than our competitors." This sentence, from a street-car advertisement, shows a familiar type of blurred thought. The reader must guess whether the writer meant "than our competitors do," or "than our competitors'." Less dangerous, but condemned by all who

care for well-wrought work, is the contamination of one form by another, as in "those kind of turbines."

Good use is not prim or priggish

In the give and take of casual speech, of course, only pedants and prigs insist on absolute and literal correctness. Omissions and sudden shifts in structure will be pardoned in the lightness and swiftness of familiar communication. The abbreviated auxiliaries "I'd," "I've," "he's," are instances of this. Observe, too, the high degree of liberty that a master allows himself in a friendly letter:

> My dear M., . . . Oh Heavens! what treachery, I heard of it on Sunday at Effingham Hill. And without consulting me! One comfort is, you haven't a tree on the estate — not a shrub. Why, I know the house. I inspected it — I rejected it long before you had an idea of it! But I confess I'm jealous now you have gone and really made it your own. . . .
>
> Your article on Byron admirable: nothing so good yet written of him and from the highest view. I confessed to Fred that if I could write like that I would write more prose. He groaned. He has a private chamber of groans.
>
> GEORGE MEREDITH.

Minor inaccuracies will be easily tolerated, also, like the misplaced "only" in "Officer, I was only going eight miles an hour!" But from careful writing all such irregularity is barred; and every writer must be able to recognize these irregularities for what they are, and must know when to use them. And only the expert, he must always remember, may trifle with established usage.

This chapter tabulates and illustrates the princi-

ples of sentence structure most commonly violated. The rules governing the relation of words to each other are followed by those governing the arrangement of the larger sentence elements — phrases and clauses. The sentences illustrate correct use, the part that is likely to give trouble being printed in italics, and the wrong form being added in brackets. Constructions that are colloquially allowable, though contrary to strict precept, are conspicuously noted, as are those concerning which usage is divided.

Relation of Word to Word

Substantives: Nouns and Pronouns

Case Nominative: *Who* (not *whom*) as subject

8. Always use the nominative for the subject of a predicate verb, disregarding any word that may seem to draw it into the accusative (the objective).

There are several candidates *who*, we think, are eligible [not *whom*].

The men *who* I feared were against us are really for us [not *whom*].

There's trouble in store for *whoever* concocted that plan [not *whomever*].

Do not allow *who* to be drawn into the accusative (the objective) by the influence of a neighboring verb or preposition not grammatically controlling it. (See **15**.)

NOTE. — Avoid the tendency to use the accusative of the first personal pronoun when the construction demands the nominative as subject.

He thinks that *we* Freshmen ought to express our opinion [not *us* Freshmen].

I (not *me*) as predicate nominative

9. Use the nominative for any substantive standing in the predicate to describe or limit the nominative subject; note that this substantive is called the *predicate nominative.*

The class officers are Smith and *I* [not *me*].
Yes, that's *she,* by the door [not *her*].

It's *I* or It's *me?*

DIVIDED USE: It's *I.* It's *me.* ("It's *me*" is not generally approved.)

Accusative (objective): *Whom, me* (not *who, I*) as direct object

10. The direct object of a verb is always in the accusative (the objective), no matter how far it is shifted from the verb.

Whom did he appoint [not *who*]? I don't know *whom* [not *who*]. — The pronoun is object of *he appointed,* understood.
They have asked the Clarks and *us* to dinner [not *we*].

These mistaken nominatives are the errors of people with "a little learning," who, once warned against the accusative pronoun in certain constructions, thereafter avoid it in all. (See also **11**, **12**.)

CAUTION. — In sixteenth and seventeenth century English, *who* for *whom* is common as object of a verb or a preposition. Shakespeare says: "*Who* wouldst thou strike?" "... A gentleman *who,* in my mood, I stabb'd unto the heart." "To *who,* my lord?" — Modern usage, however, definitely refuses to sanction this construction.

Whom, me (not *who, I*) with a preposition

11. A substantive used with a preposition must be in the accusative (the objective), no matter how far it is separated from the preposition.

Whom did you vote for [not *who*]?
It's hard to decide between you and *him* [not *he*].
Many wouldn't agree with you and *me* [not *I*].

DIVIDED USE: No one but *him* objects. No one but *he* objects. ("Him" is preferable, "but" being taken as a preposition, like *except*. "But he" is defended on the ground that the expanded sentence reads: "No one objects, *but* he objects," the "but" being a conjunction; the defense, however, is weak.)

None but him or *None but he?*

12. The subject of an infinitive is in the accusative (the objective).

Whom, me (not *who, I*) for subject of infinitive

Whom do you believe to be the donor [not *who*]?

NOTE. — Distinguish from this the construction: "*Who* do you believe is the donor?" (See **8.**)

13. Use the accusative (the objective) of a substantive in the predicate describing or limiting the subject of an infinitive.

Or for predicate modifier of that subject

You say they suppose the donor to be *me* [not *I*]?

NOTE. — Distinguish from this the construction: "The ringleader, they suppose, is *I*?" (See **9.**)

14. Use the genitive (the possessive) of a noun or pronoun modifying a gerund (sometimes called a verbal noun).

Genitive (possessive) with the gerund (verbal noun)

There is no chance of *our* winning [not *us*].
I had forgotten the rule; but now I remember *Mr. Smith's* telling us of it [not *Mr. Smith*].

NOTE. — When the form in *-ing* is a *participle*, not a gerund, the substantive naming the actor is properly accusative. CORRECT: I remember *him*, telling us his favorite story. ("Him" is object of "remember." In the sentence, "I remember *his* telling us of it," the gerund, "telling," is object of "remember.")

Recasting to avoid this construction is often advisable if not necessary.

The very fact that this conflict of interests arose was ominous. [NOT: The very fact of *this conflict of interests'* having arisen was ominous.]

General: case of pronoun determined by its use in its clause

15. For a pronoun in a subordinate clause, use the case demanded by the construction of the pronoun *in that clause.* (This holds whether the clause is complete or only partly developed.)

In relative clauses

I shall ask *whomever* you suggest [not *whoever ;* the pronoun is object].

I shall ask *whoever* happens to be here [not *whomever ;* the pronoun is subject].

She expresses her opinions to *whoever* is at hand to listen [not *whomever ;* the pronoun is subject].

Has he chosen anyone ? Yes, but I don't know *whom* [not *who ;* the pronoun is object of " has chosen," understood].

In *than-* or *as*-clauses

Bates wrote a better paper than *I* [not *me ;* the pronoun is subject of " wrote," understood].

That comes better from you than *him* [not *he ;* the pronoun is accusative with " from " in " than it would come from *him,*" understood].

He misled the others as easily as *me* [not *I* — if the clause in full is " as he deceived *me* "].

He can persuade the others more easily than *I* [not *me* — if the clause in full is " than *I* can persuade them "].

Than whom

UNIVERSALLY ACCEPTED (though ungrammatical) : There goes Judge Blake, *than whom* there's no fairer judge. — Test the construction thus : " There goes Judge Blake. There's no fairer judge than *he* " [not *than him*].

General: case of a noun or pronoun in apposition

16. For a substantive in apposition use the same case as that of the substantive modified.

Johnson did not betray the real culprits, — *him himself,* Harley, and *me* [not *he himself, I*].

Both of them — *he* and *she* alike — were discharged [not *him and her*].

My task is hard, but easier than Anderson's, the *secretary's* [not *secretary*]. — In such cases, recast: My task is hard, but easier than that of Anderson, *the secretary*.

17. The gender of a pronoun is determined by its antecedent. **Gender Of a pronoun determined by its antecedent**

1. Use *who* (not *which*) for persons. **Who or which**

There are always a few applicants *whom* I trust at first sight [not *which*].

Do not use *which* (neuter) to refer to a person, or to a group of persons, if they are thought of as individuals. (A neuter pronoun may, of course, refer to a group of persons thought of as an impersonal unit: He disbanded the committee, *which* had finished the work assigned it.)

IDIOMATIC: *Which* of you saw him first?

2. Use *of which* (not *whose*), as a rule, for things. **Of which or whose**

He discussed the recent panic, the effects *of which* are still appreciable [not *whose*].

COLLOQUIAL: Here's a newspaper *whose* editor's the right sort!

If *of which* results in clumsiness, the possessive adjective *whose* may be used even in formal speech.

ALLOWABLE: The crusade of 1096 was the first of those great expeditions *whose* results we are to examine.

3. Use *he* (not *he or she*), as a rule, to refer to an antecedent that may be either masculine or feminine. **He for he or she**

The children were restless ; not one could be kept at *his* work [not *his or her*].

Everyone of you must realize that *he* is responsible in this matter [not *he or she*].

It is over-punctilious in any but the most precise speech, such as legal speech, for instance, to use *he or she* for the simpler and universally recognized *he* (generic masculine).

NOTE. — To avoid such dilemmas as this, "Either John or Mary must give up *his* (*his or her*) point," recast thus : "Either John must give up his point, or Mary hers."

Number Of a pronoun determined by its antecedent

18. The number of a pronoun is determined by its antecedent.

***Neither . . . he ; everyone . . . his,* etc.**

1. *Neither Harry nor James* showed *his* report card at home [not *their*].
2. *Each* (*every one*) of the boys showed *his* report card at home [not *their*].
3. Whenever I hear *a person* (*anyone*) repeating that story, I tell *him he is* mistaken [not *them they are*].
4. It is better to allow *the reader* to draw *his* own conclusions [not *their*].

A plural pronoun is often wrongly used to refer to a singular antecedent (i.e., to an alternative member, singular, of a compound substantive, as in sentence 1, or to an indefinite substantive, singular, as in sentences 2–4) ; this occurs because the speaker is vaguely aware of the plural character of the group represented by the compound or the indefinite substantive, and also in some cases because by using the plural he avoids the generic masculine (see **17**, *3*), as in sentences 3 and 4.

This use of the plural for the singular is to be carefully avoided even in colloquial speech.

DIVIDED USE: *None* of them told *his* parents. *None* of them told *their* parents. (It is preferable, because more accurate, to use the singular with *none;* see rule 3 under the following NOTE.)

None . . . his or *None . . . their?*

NOTE. — As to the number of compound and indefinite substantives recall the following rules (illustrated further in **30**):

Number Of compound and indefinite nouns and pronouns

1. Compound substantives, the members joined by *and,* are regularly plural.

2. Compound substantives, the members joined by *or, nor,* or *but,* are singular or plural according as the members are singular or plural. (If the members differ in number, the compound may be construed as either singular or plural.)

3. The indefinite substantives here named are invariably singular: the indefinite pronouns *another, each, every, either, neither, one, anybody, anyone,* and all others ending in *-body* or *-one;* singular nouns modified by *a, any, another, each, every, either, neither, one.*

DIVIDED USE: *None,* literally *no one,* singular, is often used as plural, equivalent to *not any,* plural. It is generally preferable to treat *none* as singular, and thus to fortify, rather than weaken, its original meaning.

Reference of pronouns

19. The reference of a pronoun must be unmistakable.

Vague reference of *which* to a whole clause

1. A pronoun must refer to a definite antecedent (not to the general idea of a clause or phrase). Do not use a pronoun unless the context affords a definite antecedent; use a noun, or recast otherwise.

I declined the offer, though *it* had pleased father very much. — OR: I declined the offer, and thus pleased father very much. [NOT: I declined the offer, *which* pleased father very much.]

I bought a sombrero, so as not to be sun-struck in the next harvest field, for I had narrowly escaped a sunstroke in the last. [NOT: I bought a sombrero, so as not to be sun-struck in the next harvest field, *which* I had narrowly escaped in the last.]

COLLOQUIAL USE (allowable if clear): He's a good sport, *which* nobody can deny.

Ambiguous reference

2. A pronoun must refer to one antecedent, unmistakably its own. Do not use a pronoun that may be applicable to any one of several substantives in the immediate neighborhood.

Mr. Johnson took the book away from Charles just because *he himself* wanted to read it. — OR: Mr. Johnson took the book away from Charles just because he knew the boy wanted to read it. [NOT: Mr. Johnson took the book away from Charles just because *he* wanted to read it.]

Note the effect of pronouns carelessly used:

Mr. B—— was the man whose attacks on President Wilson nearly disrupted Princeton just before *he* resigned to become Governor of New Jersey.

There's a periwinkle. *They* eat *them,* you know, when *they* get bigger.

I watched the driver leading the poor, tired cab horse, *his* bones showing painfully under his hide.

When I first made the suggestion that this formation covered a wide area, the professor rejected *it* summarily; but later he admitted that *it* did.

It has been ascertained by the college how much milk *it* uses; *it* takes fourteen forty-quart cans of *it* a day to supply the regular need, and sometimes *it* requires even more.

M. H. Smith, with *his* son, Dr. W. B. Smith, *who* has been visiting *his* father here, left yesterday for Baltimore, where *he* will join *his* wife, and attend the commencement exercises of Johns Hopkins, the university from which *he* received *his* M.D.

3. A pronoun must refer to an antecedent present in the sentence (not to a substantive left to inference). If the proper antecedent is not present, use a definite noun rather than a pronoun, or reconstruct the sentence in some other way.

Reference to an object not indicated

After having agreed to offer no opposition, he failed to keep *the agreement.* [NOT : After having agreed to offer no opposition, he failed to keep *it.*]

I've read all I can find about aviation, but I've never seen *an airship.* [NOT : I've read all I can find about aviation, but I've never seen *one.*]

The Tempest is perhaps the last in order of the Shakespearean plays. *It* was written probably in 1611. — OR : *The Tempest* is perhaps the last in order of the plays written by Shakespeare. *He* wrote it probably in 1611. [NOT : *The Tempest* is perhaps the last in order of the Shakespearean plays. *He* wrote it probably in 1611.]

Everyone has a right to happiness, and everyone can attain *it* if he will. — OR : Everyone has a right to be happy, and everyone can attain happiness if he will. [NOT : Everyone ought to be happy, and everyone can attain *it* if he will.]

4. A pronoun must refer to an antecedent that is prominent in the sentence.

Reference to an inconspicuous antecedent

Never receiving affection, he never gave *it.* [NOT CLEAR : Never an object of affection, he never gave *it.*]

Shakespeare did not work alone on this play ; someone has collaborated with *him.* [LESS GOOD : This play is not wholly the work of Shakespeare's hand. Some one has collaborated with *him.*]

5. The antecedent to which a pronoun refers and the pronoun itself must be identical in meaning.

Inconsistency between pronoun and antecedent

The student body has voted to devote the money raised at *its* recent celebration to the relief of the flood sufferers [not *their ;* note that "student body" is used in a singular sense, as is proved by "has"].

The quaint Beef Eaters headed the procession, representing the long line of men *who* have for centuries stood guard at the Tower. [NOT : The quaint Beef Eaters, *who* have for centuries stood guard at the Tower, headed the procession.]

Omission of the subject of a sentence

20. Do not omit a substantive from the sentence unless the sense fully permits.

1. The subject substantive is regularly required in the sentence.

We received your letter of April 30. Unfortunately *we* cannot grant your request. [NOT : ∧ Received your letter of April 30. Unfortunately ∧ cannot grant your request.]

Such omissions, very common in poorly written business letters, are allowable only in jotted notes or in very familiar letters that adopt the style of a diary. (See **27**, NOTE 2, **41**, *1.*)

Omission forcing on some word a duty it cannot perform

2. Do not omit a substantive if its omission forces upon a substantive present in the sentence a function it cannot logically fulfil.

He rebels alike against *restrictions* that are wise and against *restrictions* (*those*) that are unwise. [NOT : He rebels against *restrictions* that are wise and ∧ that are unwise.]

She treats with equal disdain *those* who ignore her and *those* who court her. [NOT : She treats with equal disdain *those* who ignore her and ∧ who court her.]

Omission of antecedent

3. Never omit a substantive needed as antecedent of a pronoun. (See **19**, *3.*)

21. Place a substantive in close or at least unmistakable connection with its modifiers. **Position of substantives and modifiers**

He's one of the rudest men I've ever encountered, if not the rudest. [NOT: He's one of the *rudest*, if not the *rudest, men* I've ever encountered.] — In the incorrect form, the plural "men" stands in immediate contact and in seeming relation with the obviously singular "rudest." (The form given first is allowable because the hearer can be relied on to supply "man" after the second "rudest" by an easy inference from "men.")

Adjectives and Adverbs

22. A demonstrative adjective agrees in number with the noun it modifies. **Agreement of adjective with noun: *this kind* (not *these kind*)**

We don't get good results from *this* sort of advertisement [not *these sort of advertisements*].

I never can do *that* kind of problem [not *those kind of problems*].

Here the speaker's vague sense of many advertisements or problems — a sense expressed and strengthened by the plural form he always uses after *kind of* — misleads him into the use of the plural modifier for the singular "sort" or "kind."

NOTE. — The use of singular or plural after *kind of* depends on whether the speaker thinks of the whole class or of its individual members. We naturally say "That kind of *object*" [not *objects*], but may say either "That kind of *cake*," or "That kind of *cakes*."

23. Use the indefinite article, *a, an,* to modify a substantive that designates a single object. Do not use *a* or *an* to modify a substantive used after *kind of* to designate a general class. ***Kind of man* (not *kind of a man*)**

He must have used some *sort of file* [not *sort of a file*].
I want the same *kind of oar* that you use [not *kind of an oar*].

Comparative degree for comparing *two* objects

24. Use the comparative degree of an adjective in comparing two objects. Do not use the superlative.

Who is the *better* speaker, Lane or Hughes [not *best*] ?
I care *more* for the *younger* of the two girls [not *most, youngest*].

Words incapable of comparison

NOTE. — For vague use of the comparative, see **59**, *2*, *3*. For inexact use of the comparative of words incapable of comparison, see **Predominant, Preferable, Unique, Universally**, under **6**; see also *Degree* in the Index.

The adjective with the linking verb

25. Use adjectives and adverbs correctly with the verbs *be, feel,* etc.

1. Use an adjective (not an adverb) after a linking verb.

I felt *ill* [not *badly, poorly*].
She is very *well,* thank you [not *nicely*].
The salt air smells *fresh* [not *freshly*].
You look *charming* (*attractive*) tonight [not *charmingly, attractively*].

The words "ill," "well," etc., express conditions or qualities of the subject, and therefore are adjectives.

After the linking verbs *be, become, feel, grow, look, remain, seem, sound, smell, stand,* etc., the adverb is wrong.

The adverb to modify a verb

2. Use an adverb (not an adjective) to modify a complete or a transitive verb.

I felt my way very *cautiously* [not *cautious*].

"Cautiously" modifies "felt," expressing the manner of the act, and is therefore an adverb. An adjective cannot be used to modify a verb.

NOTE 1. — On *slow* in "Go slow," etc., see **Go slow** in the list of misused words (**6**).

NOTE 2. — The following table shows the correct use of *adjectives* with linking verbs and of *adverbs* with the same verbs used as complete or transitive verbs :

Adjective — Linking Verb	Adverb — Complete or Transitive Verb
He **looks** *good.*	He **looks** *angrily* at me (complete).
He **seems** [colloquially **appears**] *sensible.*	He **appears** *well* in public (complete).
He **arrived** *safe.*	He **arrived** *safely* (complete).
It **tastes** *sweet.*	He **tasted** it *gingerly* (transitive).
He **stood** *firm.*	He **stood** *firmly* by us (complete).
He **proved** *faithful.*	He **proved** the point *conclusively* (transitive).
He **is growing** *stronger.*	He **is growing** *rapidly* (complete).

26. Use an adverb (not an adjective) to modify an adjective or an adverb. **The adverb to modify adjective or adverb**

The story is *really* plausible [not *real*].
He spoke *very* pleasantly [not *real*].

27. Do not omit an adjective from the sentence unless the sense fully permits. **Omission of *a, the,* etc., in a series of nouns**

An article or a possessive or a demonstrative adjective modifying the first noun of a series must be repeated before each following noun in the series unless all the nouns represent the same object.

(The rule holds if, as often, the first noun of the series, modified by a descriptive adjective, is left to inference.)

The manuscript contains *a* finished and *an* unfinished poem. [NOT : The manuscript contains *a* finished and ∧ unfinished poem.]

He called together representatives of both *the* black and *the* white races. [NOT : He called together representatives of the black and ∧ white races.]

She observed *her* accepted and *her* rejected suitor engaged in amicable conversation. [NOT : She observed *her* accepted and ∧ rejected suitor engaged in amicable conversation.]

I shall never speak to *that* man or *that* woman again ! [NOT : I shall never speak to *that* man or ∧ woman again !]

NOTE 1. — Observe the difference in meaning :

The bereaved wife and mother hurried to the scene. [There is *one* woman ; her husband and son are lost.] — *The bereaved wife* and *the bereaved mother* hurried to the scene. [There are *two* women ; one is wife, one mother, to the dead man.]

My friend and confidante tried to console me. [*One* person is indicated.] — *My friend* and *my confidante* both tried to console me. [*Two* persons are indicated.]

Omission of *a, your,* in business letters, etc.

NOTE 2. — Omission of *a, the, that, your,* etc., in business notices and letters, personal letters, and the like, is never advisable ; it is allowable only in notes and jottings intended for the writer's own use. (See **20**, *1*, **41**, *1*.)

Position of adverb *Only*, etc.

28. Place an adverb in immediate or at least unmistakable connection with the word it modifies.

1. Only :

He finished *only* half of the appointed task. [NOT : He *only* finished half of the appointed task.]

You need read *only* the first chapter. [NOT : You need *only* read the first chapter.] — Note, however, that " only " is accurately placed in the sentence, " You need *only* glance through the first chapter."

COLLOQUIAL : I've *only* seen him once. (This liberty is to be used with moderation, never when misunderstanding may result, as in the sentence, " It might have been worse ; he *only* lost one eye." Does this mean that his sole injury was the loss of an eye, or that, whatever else he may have suffered, at least he lost but one eye ?)

2. Other adverbs :

He ran *almost* a mile. [NOT : He *almost* ran a mile.]
Do you remember *ever* having heard it before ? [NOT : Do you *ever* remember having heard it before ?]
Not all of us are here yet. [NOT : All of us are*n't* here yet.]
He *very rudely* ordered me to depart. [NOT : He ordered me to depart *very rudely*.]
The fellow I *just now* showed you broke a world's record last week. [NOT : The fellow I showed you *just now* broke a world's record last week.] — In the incorrect form, the reader may take " just now " either with " showed " or with " broke," until he comes to " last week." If " last week " is omitted, he will be at a loss what to understand.

29. Do not allow an adverb to "split" an infinitive. **Split infinitive**

The police were ordered *to arrest* any agitators *immediately* [not *to immediately arrest*].
This evidence may prove *to support* his contention, at least in some degree [not *to in some degree support*].

NOTE. — Defenders of the split infinitive brand those who oppose it as purists. However, it has not received any general recognition, because it is always awkward and in nine cases out of ten quite unnecessary. The following comments are indicative of the present consensus of opinion :

"The 'split infinitive' should be avoided unless its avoidance involves the use of awkward or unusual forms of expression. 'Splitting' may exceptionally be required for clearness or for emphasis. Unnecessary and undesirable 'splitting' is illustrated in the sentences, 'The intention was to completely explore the region.' 'The miners intend to fully test this ground.'" (*Suggestions to Authors,* United States Geological Survey, Washington, 1913, p. 50.)

"You use continually a form of speech like this — 'to immediately begin,' 'to promptly choose,' etc. I think this is condemned by all the authorities. Lincoln used it, I know, but I don't think it wise for us to." (John Hay, in letter to J. G. Nicolay; see *Life and Letters of John Hay,* W. R. Thayer, 1915, II, p. 37.)

"The Senator's letter must have been written with a view to the possibility to [of ?] its publication and its careful scanning by no small fraction of a hundred million people. For that, if for no other reason, he should have subjected his 'copy' to laborious editing before he sent it out. Thereby would he have eliminated 'balled up' as well as avoided that prosecution by the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Infinitives to which he is now liable." (Editorial note, *New York Times,* Feb. 26, 1916, commenting on a letter containing among other things the words, "I would hate *to radically disagree* with you.")

Verbs

Number of a verb determined by the subject

30. The number of a verb is determined by the subject.

Singular or plural with a compound subject

1. A verb used with a compound subject substantive, if the members are joined by *and,* is regularly plural. (See **18,** NOTE, rule 1.)

Industry and initiative *are* expected of all our employees [not *is*].

Barton and I *are* on duty [not *am; are* is first person plural; see **31.**]

IDIOMATIC : *The end and aim* of his life *is* to succeed. — *Toil and trouble* always *seems* to be the poor man's lot. — His *energy and enthusiasm spurs* me on. (Note the frequently cited example : " The tumult and the shouting *dies.*" — In these cases the compound is a virtual unit. The liberty is to be sparingly exercised.)

2. A verb used with a compound subject substantive, if the members are joined by *or, nor,* or *but,* is singular or plural according as the members are singular or plural. (See **18,** NOTE, rule 2.)

Either Mason or Hale *is* sure to come [not *are*].
Neither the Democrats nor the Republicans *feel* any confidence.
Not the king but his counselor *was* responsible [not *were*].
Not the Democrats but the Republicans *are* sponsors for that measure.

NOTE. — When one member is singular and one plural, the verb usually agrees with the nearer.

Neither the sheriff nor the guards *were* able to quell the riot [not *was*].
Neither the guards nor the sheriff *was* able to quell the riot [not *were*].
Not the counselors but the king *was* responsible [not *were*].
In such cases recast : The sheriff *was* not able to quell the riot, nor *were* the guards. — The king *was* responsible, not the counselors.

3. A verb used with a singular indefinite subject substantive is singular. (See **18,** NOTE, rule 3.)

Singular with *either, each, every,* etc.

Neither of them *has* a clear record [not *have*].
Every man here, I suppose, *thinks he is* not responsible [not *think they are*].

DIVIDED USE : None of them *has* (*have*) done *his* (*their*) best. (The singular is preferable ; see **18,** NOTE, rule 3, DIVIDED USE.)

None has* or *none have?

Singular or plural with collective subject

4. A verb used with a collective subject substantive is singular or plural according to the meaning of the noun.

The whole class *is* invited to the ceremony [not *are*, if the class is invited as a body].
The whole class *are* invited to the ceremony [not *is*, if the class members are invited as individuals].
One hundred dollars *was* the sum total [not *were*].
One hundred dollars *were* grudgingly counted out, one by one [not *was*].

Use a singular verb with a collective noun if you are thinking of the group as a unit; a plural verb, if you are thinking of the individuals forming the group.

NOTE. — Dogmatism in such cases is given short shrift. In a textbook familiar to many Freshman English classes occur the words: "A whole chain of universities, from Cracow to St. Andrews, were established." Some purist, on reading this sentence in a copy now on the reference shelf in one of our large University libraries, has underlined "were" and neatly penciled in the margin "was"; but below the "was" an irate dashing hand has inscribed "damn rot!"

Plural with *you*

5. A verb used with *you* is always plural in form.

Harry, you *were* mistaken [not *was*].
Children, you *are* to come in now.

Singular (*doesn't*) with *he, it,* etc.

6. A verb used with a singular subject, third person (*he*, etc.), is always singular (third person).

He *doesn't* intend to help us [not *don't* = *do not*].

NOTE. — See **Don't** in list of misused words (6).

31. The person of a verb is determined by the subject.

A verb used with a compound subject substantive, if the members differ in person, and are joined by *or* or *but*, agrees with the nearer member.

Person of a verb determined by its subject

Either Barton or I *am* on duty [not *is*].
Not I but Barton *is* on duty [not *am*].
In such cases recast: Barton *is* on duty, not I. — Either Barton's on duty, or I *am*.

32. A verb must agree with its subject, not with some other substantive.

General agreement of a verb with its subject

1. A verb must agree with the actual subject, not with some intervening substantive.

Not with any intervening noun

1. Barton, not you, *is* on duty [not *are*; "Barton" is subject]. — "Not you" is an elliptical clause, here used parenthetically. Recasting is advisable. (See **31.**)
2. One of us, Barton or I, *is* on duty [not *am*; "one" is subject]. Recasting is advisable. (See **31.**)
3. I, his friend, *am* ready to help him [not *is*; "I" is subject]. Though "friend" here is a noun in the first person, since it names the speaker, it is likely to be mistaken, by force of habit, for third.
4. But it is just here that the difference in the characters of the two men *lies* [not *lie*; "difference" is subject].
5. The reasons that I can give for this decision *are* many [not *is*; "reasons" is subject].
6. This is one of the replicas that *were* painted in Van Dyck's studio [not *was*; "that," representing "replicas," is subject].
7. This young girl, with the help of a small brother, *supports* the whole family [not *support*; "girl" is subject].

Loosely thinking speakers are likely to make mistakes in sentences like the sixth, where the singular "one" is allowed to influence the verb

Not with any noun or pronoun in a phrase introduced by *with, as well as*, etc.

form, or like the seventh, where a phrase modifying the subject, introduced by *with, with the help of, as well as, no less than, in addition to, such as*, etc., is carelessly taken as one member of a compound subject substantive.

Not with any word, not the subject, that precedes the verb

2. A verb in a sentence where the subject follows the verb, must agree with the subject.

There *remain* eight dollars to account for [not *remains;* " eight dollars " is subject].
There *were* many objections to the plan [not *was;* " objections " is subject].
In the room *were* many children [not *was;* " children " is subject.]

Not with a predicate nominative

3. A verb must agree with its subject (not with a predicate nominative).

The cause of my delay *was* several unexpected interruptions [not *were;* " cause " is subject]. Recast when possible: The cause of my delay *was a series* of unexpected interruptions.

Tense

33. Use the tense of a verb that accurately expresses the time of the action.

Present

1. Use the present (not the future) in such sentences as this:

In acceptance (I *am* happy to accept)

I *am* happy to accept your invitation [not *shall be*].

The speaker is misled by a half-formed conception of his future appearance at the party; but his acceptance is present.

In expressing permanent and general truths

2. Use the present (not the past) in such sentences as these:

Honesty *is* the best policy.
He urged that honesty *is* the best policy even in politics [not *was*].

Use the present because the assertion, being in force for time in general, is in force now; to say "He urged that honesty *was* the best policy" limits the force of the statement to the time at which the speaker was speaking. Note the difference:

He said that the recent enactments *were* ludicrous. [They are viewed as belonging to the time indicated by "said," not to the present, probably as being not now in force.]

He said that the recent enactments *are* ludicrous. [They are viewed as belonging to the present, now in force.]

NOTE. —The present is accordingly preferable as a rule in the discussion of a work of art, the significance of which is for all time.

I enjoyed reading the play, though the plot *is* slight [not *was*].

Shakespeare *shows* us Robin Goodfellow at his pranks in a wood "near Athens."

But observe:

I enjoyed seeing the play, though the plot *was* (*is*) slight. [The play may be viewed as a production seen on one night, that is, as a past event; if so, use *was*].

Shakespeare undoubtedly *thought* of the English countryside as he wrote of the wood "near Athens."

The tense is always determined by the meaning. Ask yourself: "Am I thinking of a general (and therefore present) truth, or a truth in force at a certain past time?"

3. Use the past (not the present) in ordinary narrative of past events. **Past**

In ordinary narrative of past events

I'll tell you just how it was. At two o'clock I *received* an urgent message from Harper and *left* the office at once. . . . [NOT: At two o'clock I *get* an urgent message from Harper and *leave* the office at once.]

"Historical present"

Use the "historical present" to convey a past event only in picturesque or emotional narratives, when the excitement of both reader and writer is high enough to make the past seem vividly present. Above all, do not sprinkle a quiet narrative of the past with a few presents, as in the following:

The Dauber *painted* steadily on, after his hours of work *are* over, and his faith in himself *was* justified, for in the end he *wins* the respect of his mates.

In expressing past necessity (*had to*, etc., not *must*)

4. Use the past, e.g., *had to* (not the present, *must*), as a rule to express a past necessity.

I know that he *had to* resign from his former position [not *must*].

Must, originally a past tense, is now almost always used as a present. "I know he *must* resign" means, "I know he *has to* resign."

In expressing a completed act

5. Use the past (not the present perfect) in such sentences as this:

You *were* late several times last week [not *have been*].

Do not use the present perfect (indicating action finished at some time within the present) to express an action belonging to a definite past time.

COLLOQUIAL: Oh yes, he's helped us greatly, — two years ago. [The "two years ago" is part of a separate sentence (He did so two years ago) loosely joined to the first.]

6. With a past tense, always give clear indication or implication of the point of time.

Always clearly indicate the definite point of time

He has not always been popular ; in fact he *was* quite unknown a short time ago. [NOT : He has not always been popular; in fact he *was* quite unknown.]

7. Use the future (not the present) after *to hope*, present, used as a principal verb.

Future with *I hope*

I hope he *will come* soon [not *comes*].

In such sentences (*to*) *hope* so emphasizes the futurity of the desired action that the future tense must be used to express that action.

IDIOMATIC : I believe he *comes* tomorrow. — We *leave* next week. [Here the date, *tomorrow* or *next week*, is so immediately future as to be part of the present section of time.]

8. To express futurity, use *shall* and *will* (*should* and *would*) correctly, as here indicated. Distinguish carefully from this use of the auxiliaries the use of the same auxiliaries, in the present tense, to express the speaker's volition.

Shall and will (should and would)

NOTE. — The rules for *shall* and *will* hold in the main for *should* and *would*. Note, however, that *should* may mean *ought* (Really he *should* be more careful), and that *would* may mean *was accustomed to* (In those days I *would* read for hours at a time without looking up from my book).

a. In declarations, direct.

In direct declarations

Futurity	Speaker's Volition
I *shall* arrive safely [not *will*].	I *will* try.
You *will* arrive safely.	You *shall* try.
He (they) *will* arrive safely.	He (they) *shall* try.
We *shall* arrive safely [not *will*].	We *will* try.

Nine tenths of the prevalent errors with *shall* and *will* consist in the use of *will* for *shall*, first person, future. Learn by heart this formula for futurity:

Formula

(I *shall*, you *will*, he *will*, we *shall*, you *will*, they *will*) arrive safely.

NOTE. — Observe that the formula for futurity is the precise reverse of the formula for volition: (I *will*, you *shall*, he *shall*, we *will*, you *shall*, they *shall*) try.

In direct questions

b. In direct questions.

Futurity	Speaker's Volition
Shall I (we) arrive safely [not *will*] ?	*Shall* I (we) try ?
Shall you arrive safely [not *will*] ? — Answer : I (we) *shall* arrive safely.	*Will* you try? — Answer : I (we) *will* try.
Will he (they) arrive safely ? — Answer : He (they) *will* arrive safely.	*Shall* he (they) try ? — Answer : He (they) *shall* try.

The common error is the use of *will* for *shall* with the first and second persons to express futurity in questions. In the first person, use *shall;* in the second and third persons, use the auxiliary expected in the answer.

Formula

Learn by heart this formula: (*Shall* I, *shall* you, *will* he, *shall* we, *shall* you, *will* they) arrive safely ?

In indirect quotations

c. In indirect quotations.

Futurity

I say (said) I *shall* (*should*) arrive safely. [I say, "I *shall* arrive safely."]

You say you *shall* arrive safely. [You say, "I *shall* arrive safely."]

He says he *shall* arrive safely. [He says, "I *shall* arrive safely."]

He says she *will* arrive safely. [He says, "She *will* arrive safely."]

To express either futurity or the speaker's volition, in all persons use the auxiliary proper to the direct quotation (with any necessary change of *shall* to *should*, or *will* to *would*). The examples given above show that this holds true even when the first person, direct, with *shall*, becomes second or third person, indirect. **Rule**

EXCEPTION :

They (you) tell me I *shall* arrive safely. [They (you) said to me, "You *will* arrive safely."]

I told myself I *should* arrive safely. [I said to myself, "You *will* arrive safely."]

If the application of the general rule should result in *will* or *would* for the first person, future, use *shall* or *should*.

d. In other subordinate clauses. **In other subordinate clauses**

I should be disappointed if you *should* fail.
I must go on even though he *should* be offended.
It *would* be a terrible thing if that *should* happen !
He is determined that I *shall* arrive safely.
I was determined that you *should* succeed.
Do you insist that it *shall* be sent ?

To express either futurity or volition, use *shall* or *should* in all persons. **Rule**

9. Use the past future (not the past future perfect) in such sentences as this: **Past future**

If Carr had known he *would meet* you here, he would have come. [NOT : If Carr had known he *would have met* you here, he would have come.] ***Would be,* etc.**

Use *would meet, would be,* etc. (not *would have met, would have been*) when the action is viewed from a past standpoint as to occur at some point in future time; reserve *would have met,* etc., for cases

when the action is viewed as already finished at some point in future time.

The tenses are correctly used in the following sentences:

I knew Wednesday that he *would come* [at some time in the future].
I knew Wednesday that he *wouldn't have come* by Friday night.

Harmony (sequence) of tenses

34. Maintain harmony of tenses (proper sequence of tenses).

Divisions of time

Usually tenses within a sentence are related to each other within one division of time: past, present, or future.

Standard verb

The most important verb sets the standard of reference; other verbs must precisely express their time relation to that verb. (In the illustrative sentences the standard verb is in **boldface**.)

Harmony between modal (finite) verb forms

1. Preserve harmony of tense between the standard verb and other modal (finite or predicative) verb forms.

I **found** him quite recovered, though he *had been* very ill [not *was* or *has been*]. — "Found" is past; the being ill preceded the finding; *be* must therefore be past perfect.
I **dismissed** him because he *was* (or *had been*) impudent [not *has been*].
The cup **is** his, they tell me, because he *has broken* a world record [not *had broken*].
I **should have come** Friday if I *had wished* to see you [not *wished*]. The assumed wishing is prior to the assumed coming.

IDIOMATIC: I **helped** him because he *helped* [strictly, *had helped*] me.

NOTE 1. — The harmony of tenses is disregarded constantly in hastily composed narrative. The following examples are not extreme :

I *have met* several people who never *had been west* of Philadelphia and who never *saw* the inside of a sleeping car.

At the age of twelve he *entered* a private school, where, to say the least, his life *was* not happy ; disliked by his fellows and neglected by his masters, he *shuns* all company and *neglects* his studies with consequent penalties, till, in the end, he *could endure* no more and *ran* away. (See also **33**, *3*, second sentence.)

NOTE 2. — Sometimes the tenses are in different divisions of time ; if so, the problem is not to relate the tenses precisely within one division, but merely to express each time idea precisely. These sentences are correct : **Possible absence of harmony**

I **hope** [present] he *will come* [future] soon. (See **33**, *7*.)

I **undertook** [past] the work because I *am* [present] poor.

He **will tell** me [future] what he *did* [past].

Shakespeare **said** [past] that thought *is* [present] free. (See **33**, *2*.)

The experts **decided** [past] that the painting *is* [present] a genuine Van Dyck. (See **33**, *2*.)

His reply **was** [past] of a kind that *answers* [present] nothing. (See **33**, *2*.)

2. Preserve harmony of tense between the standard verb and any participle or infinitive used in the sentence. **Harmony between modal (finite) verb forms and participles or infinitives**

a. The present participle is used to express action simultaneous with that expressed by the standard verb. It must not be used to express action occurring *before* or *after* the principal action. **Present participle**

He **rang** the bell and the butler answered. [NOT : He **rang** the bell, the butler *answering*.]

He **has given** long and honorable service, *having been appointed* in 1895. — BETTER : Since his appointment in 1895 he **has given** long and honorable service. [NOT : He **has given** long and honorable service, *being appointed* in 1895.]

IDIOMATIC : *Hearing* of your trouble, I **came**. — *Turning* to me, he **grasped** my hand. — *Striding* angrily to the bench, he **flung** himself down. — (The present participle here expresses action immediately preceding and intimately connected with that expressed by the standard verb.)

Perfect infinitive

b. The perfect infinitive is used to express action preceding that of the principal verb. It must not be used to express action simultaneous with the principal action.

I **meant** (**had meant**) *to speak* of this earlier. [NOT : I **meant** *to have spoken* of this earlier.]
I **should have liked** *to meet* him.— I **should like** *to have met* him. [NOT : I **should have liked** *to have met* him.]

Observe the difference in force between present and perfect infinitives, correctly used :

I **ought** *to go* now. I **ought** *to have gone* yesterday.
At the time, we **didn't think** ourselves particularly fortunate *to see* him. Later, we **thought** ourselves fortunate *to have seen* him that one time.

Subjunctive mood

35. The subjunctive mood is still preferred in wishes, conditions, etc., in which unreality is clearly implied or strongly suggested.

Special subjunctive verb forms, once common, are now almost never used, except in the present and past tenses of *to be*.

***If I* were and *If I* was**

I wish I *were* a man [rather than *was*]!
If I *were* you, I should go [rather than *was*].

If I *were* to fail you now, I should be false indeed [rather than *was*] !

It sometimes seems as if that dog *were* human [rather than *was*] !

DIVIDED USE : He acts as if he *were* (*was*) ill. — (Either form is correct if the meaning is " Judging from the way he acts, he *may be* ill ; *I don't know.*" The subjunctive " were " is necessary if the meaning is, " *Though not ill,* he acts as if he were.) **As if he was and as if he were**

DIVIDED USE : If he *is* (*be*) involved, he will admit it. — (The indicative " is " suggests nothing as to whether or not the speaker believes him to be involved ; the subjunctive " be ", less common, suggests strongly that the speaker doubts that he is involved). **If he is and If he be**

NOTE 1. — The subjunctive is still universally used in such cases as these :

I move that the report *be* accepted.

Good luck *go* with you !

NOTE 2. — Subjunctives are occasionally used incorrectly or with stilted effect : **Incorrect or stilted use of subjunctive**

I hoped, as Markley lay there motionless, that he *was* dead [not *were*]. (The subjunctive is incorrect because " hope," by its very meaning, prevents any strong sense of unreality on the speaker's part.)

Is that rule applicable to this case ? I should think that it *would be* [less natural, *were*].

36. Use the active voice whenever the speaker's interest centers in the act as performed by the agent. (The inaccurate substitution of passive for active produces sentences that are vague, wordy, or faulty in emphasis.) **Voice** **Misuse of passive**

All eyes were on Bailey. He ran forward, hands out, head thrown back — there was a tense moment — then — the great Bailey *fumbled* the ball — and he had lost the game for us ! [WEAK : He ran for-

ward, hands out, head thrown back — there was a tense moment — then — the ball *was fumbled,* — and the great Bailey had lost the game for us !]

The campers are constantly enthusiastic, but they are very careful to avoid overdoing. — Or : The campers are constantly enthusiastic, but they are carefully guarded from overdoing. (Here " are guarded " illustrates proper use of the passive, since our interest centers in the act of guarding as it affects the campers, the persons named by the subject.) — [Vague : Enthusiasm *is* constantly *felt,* though great care *is exercised* to avoid overdoing.]

Participle Reference

37. Every participle must refer unmistakably to a substantive present in the sentence.

Note. — The presence of the substantive is essential because the participle in itself gives no clue as to the agent of the action it expresses ; that agent is indicated by the substantive that the participle modifies.

Dangling participle

At the beginning of a sentence

1. A participle used to introduce a sentence or a clause (whether it stands alone or in a phrase that does not name the agent of the action expressed by the participle) should modify the subject of the principal verb.

This rule does not forbid the use of an introductory nominative absolute phrase in which the participle is invariably accompanied by the substantive it modifies: "*Johnson being* the umpire, I suppose the decision is fair."

1. *Disappointed* in her marriage, *she* found in motherhood her sole consolation. — Or : Though *she was disappointed* in her marriage, *motherhood* was her sole consolation. [Not: *Disappointed* in her marriage, *motherhood* was her sole consolation.]

2. *Having fallen* into mid-stream, *we* dried ourselves quickly at the camp fire. [NOT : *Having fallen* into mid-stream, the *camp fire* soon dried us.]
3. Terribly *wronged* throughout the play, *Desdemona* stirs our pity. [NOT: Terribly *wronged* throughout the play, *we* pity Desdemona.]
4. While *she was tidying* the kitchen, some *hominy* was cooking on the stove. [NOT : While *tidying* the kitchen, some *hominy* was cooking on the stove.]
5. Though *going* at full speed, the *merchantman* could not elude the pursuing vessel. [NOT : Though *going* at full speed, the pursuing vessel could not be eluded.]

EXCEPTION : This rule is not to be insisted on in colloquial use, if the meaning is obvious at first sight : *Giving up* their lives to healing their fellow men, *we* find many brave young students and doctors on the field of battle.

NOTE. — Observe that to correct the wrong sentence and yet retain the participle, the sentence must be recast to bring the substantive that the participle actually modifies to the position of subject. (See the correct forms of 1–3, 5.) But the participle may be converted into a verb with subject supplied. (See the correct forms of 1, 4.) Note also that in 4 and 5 the subject must be supplied by intuition, since no substantive indicates the agent of the action expressed by the participle.

At the end of a sentence

2. A participle, if used in a phrase not naming the agent of the action expressed by the participle, and standing as an abbreviated additional clause at the end of the sentence, must modify the subject of the principal verb.

This rule does not forbid the use of a nominative absolute phrase at the end of a sentence or clause, because in such a phrase the participle is invariably accompanied by the substantive it modifies: "I agree, *that being* the case."

1. *We* spent the evening around the camp fire, *singing* and *telling* stories. BETTER : *Singing* and *telling* stories, *we* spent the evening around the camp fire. [NOT : The *evening* was spent around the camp fire, *singing* and *telling* stories.]
2. Do not clean the *shoes* till *they have* dried. OR : The *shoes* should not be cleaned till *dried.* [NOT : Do not clean the shoes till *dried.*]
3. An *hour* daily is spent in outdoor exercise; thus *the work is* prevented from injuring the health. BETTER : *They* spend an hour daily in outdoor exercise, thus *preventing* the work from injuring their health. [NOT : An *hour* daily is spent in outdoor exercise, thus *preventing* the work from injuring the health.]

NOTE. — Observe that to correct the wrong sentence and yet retain the participle, the sentence must be recast to bring the substantive that the participle actually modifies to the position of subject. (See the correct forms of 1–3.) But the participle may be converted into a verb with subject supplied. (See the correct forms of 2, 3.) Note also that in 1 and 3 the substantive must be supplied by intuition.

Misplaced participle

3. Place a participle used to modify a substantive in such a way that no intervening substantive may be mistaken for the word the participle modifies.

1. *Trembling* with anger, the *boy* gazed at his father. [AMBIGUOUS : The *boy* gazed at his *father, trembling* with anger.]
2. *Martin,* thoroughly *frightened,* threw me a quick glance. [MISLEADING : *Martin* threw a quick glance towards *me,* thoroughly *frightened.*]
3. *Running* past on the way to school, *he* spied the blaze. [ABSURD : *He* spied the *blaze, running* past on the way to school.]
4. *Thinking* how idiotic she looked, *I* watched her mincing along. [CONFUSING : *I* watched *her* mincing along, *thinking* how idiotic she looked.]

NOTE. — Observe that the participial phrase and the subject substantive should be brought together, the phrase as a rule introducing the sentence. If the participle is meant to modify some other substantive than the subject, the sentence should be recast for clearness :

The boy gazed at his father, who was trembling with anger.

I was thoroughly frightened. Martin threw a quick glance toward me.

38. Indicate unmistakably the agent of the action represented by a gerund. **Gerund (verbal noun)**

NOTE 1. — This is essential because the gerund in itself gives no clue as to the agent.

The agent of the action, if not indicated by a substantive in immediate contact with the gerund, must be indicated by the subject of the principal verb. **Dangling gerund**

1. After *receiving* a sound whipping, *I* was left to my own devices. OR : After *whipping* me soundly my *father* left me to my own devices. [NOT : After *receiving* a sound whipping, my *father* left me to my own devices.]
2. In *formulating* the plan, *we* overlooked two important factors. [NOT: In *formulating* the plan, two important *factors* were overlooked.]
3. Upon *waking, I* found the bandages removed. OR : When *I woke*, the *bandages* were removed. [NOT : Upon *waking*, the *bandages* were removed.]
4. *We* usually dispose of such people by *dubbing* them bores. [NOT : Such *people* are usually disposed of by *dubbing* them bores.]
5. Upon *making* application, the *candidate* should mention any physical weakness. [NOT : Any physical *weakness* should be mentioned upon *making* application.]

6. He began with a summary that assisted *us* in *understanding* the situation. [NOT : He began with a summary that assisted greatly in *understanding* the situation.]

EXCEPTION : For *playing* tennis, a steady *hand* and a clear *eye* are necessary. (For general statements, when the agent is obviously *anyone* or *you*, indefinite, the rule is somewhat relaxed ; but observance of it is generally advisable : For *playing* tennis *one* needs a steady hand and a clear eye.)

NOTE 2. — The following sentences are correct, according to the rule :

1. After *his coming*, I shall feel more secure.
2. I helped *her* in *settling* her affairs.

NOTE 3. — Observe that to correct the wrong form and yet retain the gerund, the sentence must be recast to bring the substantive that indicates the agent to the position of subject (see the correct forms of 1-5) or to bring it into immediate contact with the gerund (see the correct form of 6). But the gerund may be converted into a verb with subject supplied. (See the second correct form of 3.) Note that in all but 1 the substantive indicating the agent must be supplied by intuition.

39. A gerund preceded by an adjective modifier must be followed by *of* and a substantive (not by a direct object), if the object of the action is to be expressed.

The counting of the votes **(not** ***The counting the votes*****)**

The counting of the votes is a slow process [not *the counting the votes*].

NOTE. — On the gerund preceded by a possessive adjective, as in " There's no chance *of his coming* [not *of him coming*], see **14.**

Infinitive

40. Indicate unmistakably the agent of the action expressed by an infinitive.

NOTE. — This is essential because the infinitive by its form gives no clue as to the agent.

Subject must be clearly indicated

The agent of the action, if not indicated by a substantive in immediate contact with the infinitive, must be indicated by the subject of the principal verb.

Not *enough* is known about the disaster to enable *us to determine* the cause. PREFERABLE : *We* do not yet know enough about the disaster *to determine* the cause. [NOT : Not *enough* is known about the disaster *to determine* the cause.]

EXCEPTION : *To err* is human. — It is pleasant *to see* him. (Here the infinitive itself is in the first case subject of the principal verb. In both cases the subject of the infinitive is unmistakable.)

Omission of the predicate verb

41. Do not omit a verb from the sentence unless the sense fully permits.

1. The predicate verb is regularly required in the sentence.

Your note of April 10 *is* at hand, and the enclosures *have been filed* for reference. [NOT : Your note of April 10 ∧ at hand, and enclosures ∧ filed for reference.]

Such omissions, though very common in inferior business correspondence, are permissible only in jotted memoranda or in ultra-informal letters in the diary manner. (See **20**, *1*, **27**, NOTE 2.)

NOTE. — Masters, who have earned the privilege, may write verbless sentences, and sometimes do so with notable effect ; witness Carlyle : " To me it is a most touching face. . . . Lonely there, painted as on vacancy, with the simple laurel wound round it ; the deathless sorrow and

pain, the known victory which is also deathless ; — significant of the whole history of Dante ! " And, later : " The uses of this Dante ? We will not say much about his ' uses.' " — But neither the tyro nor the writer of ordinary skill can use the liberty effectively.

Omission of *be, have,* etc., forcing on some word a duty it cannot perform

2. Do not omit a verb (capable of auxiliary as well as other functions, like *be, have*) if its omission forces on some form of the same verb in the sentence a function it cannot logically fulfil.

The case arises (1) when two or more clauses, each requiring some form of the verb *be,* for instance, are distinctly separated by a change of subject (particularly if the subjects differ in number and person), or (2) when these clauses differ in the use they make of the verb (one using it as linking verb, one as auxiliary, for example).

She *was* badly hurt, and a policeman *was* hastily summoned. [NOT : She *was* badly hurt and a policeman ∧ hastily summoned.] — The subject changes.

All our models *are* designed to meet the needs of modern engineering, and this particular one *is* guaranteed to secure absolute accuracy. [NOT : All our models *are* designed to meet the needs of modern engineering, and this particular one ∧ guaranteed to secure absolute accuracy.] — The subject changes, and changes in number.

They *are* situated on private property and therefore *are* safe from intrusion. [NOT : They *are* situated on private property and therefore ∧ safe from intrusion.] — The first " are " is the auxiliary of the passive verb form, the second is the linking verb.

3. Never omit the participle or the infinitive from a compound verb form (e.g., *to* ***be****, shall* ***be****, to have* ***been****, had* ***been****,* etc.), in the expectation that the

Omission of essential parts of a compound verb form (to *be*, had *been*, etc.)

word will be supplied from some part of the same verb used earlier in the sentence, unless the word used in the first instance precisely fits into the subsequent form.

Many physicists *use* this galvanometer with satisfaction, and *have used* it through a number of years. [NOT : Many physicists *use* this galvanometer with satisfaction, and *have* ∧ through a number of years.]

His health is *improving*, and will continue *to improve*. [NOT : His health is *improving*, and will continue *to* ∧ in the future.]

He *has failed* before and *will fail* again. [NOT (in formal use) : He *has failed* before and *will* ∧ again.]

ALLOWED ONLY COLLOQUIALLY : I've not *apologized* yet, and I don't intend *to!*

As a rule, in well-rounded and formal discourse the auxiliary, the *to* introducing an infinitive, or any other subsidiary element of a compound verbal expression must not be left in mid-air, without the verbal form to which it belongs, even if precisely that verbal form is used elsewhere in the sentence or in the immediate context.

Scientists *are endeavoring*, and indeed long *have been endeavoring*, to discover such a cure. [NOT : Scientists *are endeavoring*, and indeed long *have been* ∧, to discover such a cure.

I have no desire *to apologize*, and I do not intend *to apologize*. [NOT : I have no desire to *apologize*, and I do not intend *to* ∧.]

Colloquially the incomplete form is allowable:

Would that *suit* him ? Oh, I suppose it *would*.

42. Place the verb in close or at least unmistakable connection with the subject substantive.

Relative position of verb and subject

Feeling that the other members of the committee were unsympathetic with him, *he thought* that the work should be intrusted to different hands. [NOT : *He* felt that the other members of the committee were unsympathetic with him, and *thought* that the work should be intrusted to different hands.]

NOTE. — Lack of forethought in ordering the verbs of a sentence may produce strange results :

They paused at the spot where the two paths met and argued vociferously.

Conjunctions

Omission of *as* or *than* in a double comparison

43. In sentences involving a double comparison, do not force either *as* or *than* to serve the function of both.

This magnifying lens is as powerful *as* yours, if not more powerful (*than* yours). [NOT : This magnifying lens is as powerful$_{\wedge}$, if not more powerful, *than* yours.]

This magnifying lens is more powerful *than* yours, or at least as powerful (*as* yours). [NOT : This magnifying lens is more powerful$_{\wedge}$, or at least as powerful, *as* yours.]

NOTE 1. — In the correct forms, the words in parentheses may be omitted because they can readily be inferred ; even if they are omitted, the preceding conjunction (*as* or *than*) has but one function to perform.

NOTE 2. — The following forms, though correct grammatically, are to be avoided because the conjunctions receive awkward and undue emphasis :

This magnifying lens is as powerful *as*, if not more powerful *than*, yours.

This magnifying lens is more powerful *than*, or at least as powerful *as*, yours.

44. Use *nor* (not *or*) as the correlative of *neither*. **Correlatives: *neither . . . nor* (not *or*)**

He observed neither the recognized code of his profession *nor* the ordinary code of a gentleman [not *or*].
Neither the army *nor* the navy scored [not *or*].

45. Use correlatives to precede and connect only such elements as are strictly coördinate, e.g., direct object and direct object, predicate verb and predicate verb, clause and clause, etc. (See **55**, *2*, NOTE 2.) **Position of correlatives: before *coördinate* elements**

You will give me *either* your coöperation *or* your resignation. [NOT : *Either* you will give me your coöperation *or* your resignation.]
Harper has won his letter in *both* football *and* baseball. [NOT : Harper has *both* won his letter in football *and* in baseball. — NOT : Harper has won his letter *both* in football *and* baseball.]
This momentous decision *not only* made certain his political victory, *but also* won him his wife. [NOT : This momentous decision made certain *not only* his political victory, *but also* won him his wife.]
The author has *either* misused the word *or* used it in a way I don't understand. [NOT : The author has *either* misused the word *or* he has used it in a way I don't understand.]

Prepositions

46. Do not omit a preposition from a sentence unless the sense fully permits. **Omission of a necessary preposition**

1. Do not use a single preposition to govern two different words in the sentence unless it is in each case the preposition demanded by idiom.

The Governor manifested interest *in* the problem, and real understanding *of* it. [NOT : The Governor manifested interest ∧ and real understanding *of* the problem.]

We didn't even allude *to* the rumor, much less talk *about* it. [NOT : We didn't even allude ∧ and much less talk *about* the rumor.]

2. Do not use a single preposition as part of a compound preposition and at the same time as a separate preposition.

She is at her ease *in* any rôle *in* which she appears. [NOT : She is at her ease *in* whatever rôle she appears ∧.]

I cannot decide as *to* the genus *to* which this plant belongs. BETTER : I cannot determine the genus *to* which this plant belongs. [NOT : I cannot decide as *to* what genus this plant belongs ∧.]

Position of the preposition Regularly before the substantive

47. As a rule place a preposition immediately before the substantive used with it.

Often in colloquial use at the end of the sentence

1. A preposition may be placed after its accusative, at the end of the sentence (or the phrase) in colloquial use and, within limits, in informal use; but in more formal use this position of the preposition is to be avoided as loose and unemphatic.

You're the very man we're looking *for*. [Colloquial.]

Whom shall we turn *to?* *To* whom shall we turn? [The two forms are equally common in informal expression.]

His is an enlightened patriotism *of* which every American can be proud. [NOT (in finished use) : His is an enlightened patriotism which every American can be proud *of*.]

Suspended preposition

2. As a rule, a preposition should not be left suspended within the sentence, separated from its accusative by a phrase ending in another preposition that governs the same accusative.

He is elected *by* the people, and is responsible *to* them. [AWKWARD: He is elected *by* and is responsible *to* the people.]

NOTE. — Though the second form is often defended, because of its greater brevity, for writing of a utilitarian nature, it is seldom advisable, because of the undue emphasis that inevitably falls upon the preposition, a mere connective.

There is no objection to the continuous series of prepositions, all governing one substantive immediately following the last preposition: "Government is *by*, *for*, and *of* the people."

Negative Words

(*Adverbs, adjectives, substantives, conjunctions*)

48. Use only one negative word to express a single negative idea. **Double negative**

NOTE. — This holds not only for actual negations (I have *no* time), but also for approximate negations (I have *hardly any* time). Note the error in: This theory I have *not* seen emphasized or *hardly* recognized by other philosophers.

1. Do not use the "double negative" to express one negative idea.

1. The second experiment was *not* a success, either. [NOT: The second experiment was *not* a success, *neither*.]
2. I could *hardly* (*scarcely*) change my mind now. [NOT: I *couldn't hardly* (*scarcely*) change my mind now.]
3. Petrographic methods are open to *but* few of these objections. [NOT: Petrographic methods are *not* open to *but* few of these objections.]
4. Books are given out *only* to those with special permits. [NOT: *No* books are given out *only* to those with special permits.]

5. He *never* troubles himself to do anything, even for his own advantage. [NOT : He *never* troubles himself to do anything, *not even* for his own advantage.] — The bracketed form is defensible only if "not even for his own advantage" is sharply separated from the first clause, being added as an additional clause, such as, "He doesn't do so even for his own advantage."
6. *No* explanation of his resignation has been given or promised. [NOT : *No* explanation . . . has been given *nor* promised.]
7. I *don't* care to go to the Museum or to the theater today. [NOT : I *don't* care to go to the Museum *nor* to the theater today.]

NOTE (on sentences 6 and 7). — When a word like *no, not, never* negatives the subject or the predicate verb, its force extends over the whole clause ; to use the negative *nor* before a subordinate part of the clause therefore doubles the negative.

***No . . . nor* allowable as correlatives**

Nor is allowable as a correlative to *no, not, never*, etc., just as to *neither;* but when it is so used, the words connected by *not* (etc.) and *nor* always must be coördinate. (See **44, 45**.)

Explanation of his resignation is *not* given *nor* (*or*) promised.

***Cannot help being, cannot but be* (not *cannot help but be*)**

2. After *cannot* careful speakers use either *help being* or *but be*, not *help but be*, in such sentences as the following:

1. Scientists *cannot help accepting* this conclusion [not *cannot help but accept*].
2. Scientists *cannot but accept* this conclusion [not *cannot help but accept*].

NOTE. — *Cannot help but* is a special form of "double negative." "Cannot *help doing* it," or "cannot *but do* it" means "cannot *not do* it"; the phrase is thus a legitimate double negative; *cannot help but* substitutes for a legitimate double negative an incorrect *triple* negative.

49. Do not omit a negative word in cases where the negation of *can* is required.

Than I can't help (not *than I can help*)

The difficulty arises in colloquial speech in such clauses of comparison as the following:

I *don't* waste any more than I *can't* help. [NOT: I *don't* waste any more than I *can* help.]

In such cases recast: I waste only what I can't possibly save.

Relation of Phrases and Clauses

Arrangement

Phrases and clauses misplaced

50. Place phrases and clauses, adverbial or adjectival, in immediate or at least unmistakable relation to the sentence elements modified.

Separated from the element modified

1. Do not separate a modifying phrase or clause from the modified element by any other element with which the modifier might be construed. (See rule for participial phrase, **37**, *3*.)

1. Jeanne stood at the door of the service room and *with frightened eyes* watched us perform the operation. [NOT: Jeanne stood at the door of the service room and watched us perform the operation *with frightened eyes*.]
2. *While still very young*, he lost his wife. [AMBIGUOUS: He lost his wife, *while still very young*. (See **54**, *2*, NOTE 2.)]
3. *Before he was engaged*, he asked me to serve as his best man. [NOT: He asked me to serve as his best man *before he was engaged*.]
4. I remember seeing him once, *when I was a very small boy*. [NOT: *When I was a very small boy*, I remember seeing him once.]

5. On this road there's an old inn, *named The Three Tuns,* once the headquarters of a Revolutionary general. [NOT : On this road there's an old inn, once the headquarters of a Revolutionary general, *named The Three Tuns.*]
6. *Perched on the edge of her chair,* she sat peering at the sick boy. [NOT : She sat curiously peering at the sick boy, *perched on the edge of her chair.*]
7. A wounded private, *who refused to talk of his accident,* arrived at the base hospital with two companions. [AMBIGUOUS : A wounded private arrived at the base hospital with two companions, *who refused to talk of his accident.*]

NOTE. — As a rule, avoid any marked and unnecessary separation of modifier and modifying phrase or clause. The result is awkward, even if clear.

Jeanne watched us *with frightened eyes* from the door of the service room. [NOT : Jeanne watched us from the door of the service room *with frightened eyes.*]

A wounded private, *who refused to talk of his accident,* limped into the base hospital last night. [NOT : A wounded private limped into the base hospital last night, *who refused to talk of his accident.*]

Phrases or clauses ambiguously placed

2. Be careful, when placing a modifying phrase or clause next to the element to which it belongs, not to overlook other elements with which it may be taken.

When he began to lose hold of the men, the boss dropped him, *in spite of his shameless attempts to curry favor.* OR : The boss dropped him when he began to lose hold of the men, *in spite of his shameless attempts to curry favor with them.* [AMBIGUOUS : When he began to lose hold of the men, *in spite of his shameless attempts to curry favor,* the boss dropped him.]

The minister tried to calm the bride's mother; the bride herself was by this time in hysterics. [AMBIGUOUS : The minister tried to calm the mother of the bride, *who was by this time in hysterics.*]

NOTE. — Observe that the difficulty in the second case is avoided if the modifier is converted into a principal clause.

Coördination and Subordination

51. Express coördinate ideas in coördinate terms. **Coördinate terms for coördinate ideas**

1. Of two ideas equal in rank, one should not be expressed in a subordinate participial phrase.

It was not only *an interesting* but also *a successful* experiment. [NOT : *Being an interesting experiment,* it was also *successful.*]

2. Of two ideas equal in rank, one should not be expressed in a subordinate clause. *While*-clauses frequently violate this principle, as here illustrated : **While-clause misused for *and*-clause**

Here are the lecture halls, and there are the dormitories. [NOT : Here are the lecture halls, *while there are the dormitories.*]

While, subordinating, should rarely be used for *and,* coördinating. (For *while* used as *though,* see **54**, *3, e.*)

52. Express correctly the relation between coördinate elements. **Accurate use of coördinating conjunctions**

1. A coördinate element, offered as an alternative, is introduced by *or* or *nor* (not *and*). ***Or, nor***

Everyone entering *or* leaving the lobby was questioned. [NOT : Everyone entering *and* leaving the lobby was questioned.]

And, therefore, etc.

2. A coördinate element, additional in value, is introduced by *and, therefore, thus,* etc. (not *but*).

The plan is both unique *and* successful. [NOT: The plan is unique *but* successful.] — There is no inevitable antithesis between "unique" and "successful." If in special circumstances the speaker is aware of an antithesis, he should express it accurately: "Though the plan is wholly experimental, it is proving successful."

But, and yet, etc.

3. A coördinate element, antithetical in force, is introduced by *but, yet, and yet,* etc. (as a rule not by *and*).

He searched the whole house, *but* failed to find the necklace. [NOT (as a rule): He searched the whole house *and* he failed to find the necklace.]

The two old gentlewomen trusted him utterly, *and yet* he heartlessly squandered their little fortune. [NOT (as a rule): The two old gentlewomen trusted him utterly, *and* he squandered their little fortune.]

COLLOQUIAL: He tried *and* failed! — You hope for the best, *and* I fear for the worst! (Here "and" carries, semi-ironically, the force of *and yet, and at the same time.*)

NOTE. — Promiscuous use of *and* robs style of precision and renders it monotonous. Even the privilege of using *and* for *and yet* must be intelligently (and that means sparingly) exercised.

Subordinate form for subordinate ideas

53. Subordinate a minor idea to a major idea.

1. Do not express major and minor ideas in coordinate terms.

a. With *try, begin, be sure,* use the infinitive (not a verb coördinate with *try,* etc., introduced by *and*).

Let us *try to dissolve* it [not *try and dissolve*].
He *began to shout* excitedly [not *began and shouted*].
Be sure to lock the door [not *be sure and lock*].

Try to (not try and) etc.

b. Use a subordinate clause (not a coördinate clause introduced by *and*) to express a subordinate thought.

Misuse of clauses introduced by *and*

The famine of 1848, *which found him in his teens*, left an indelible impression on his mind. [NOT: The famine of 1848 *found* him in his teens *and left* an indelible impression on his mind.]
He was so incensed at my remarks *that I decided to desist*. [NOT: *He was incensed* at my remarks *and I decided* to desist.]
Because Shylock is deeply wronged, he rouses our pity. [NOT: Shylock *is deeply wronged, and rouses* our pity.]

COLLOQUIAL: The test tube broke, *and* [or *so, and so*] I had to begin again. — The ultimatum remained unanswered, *so* [or *and so*] *war* was declared.

NOTE. — Except when strict precision is desired, a subordinate clause, especially of cause or result, may be joined to the principal clause by *and* (*so, and so*) if the relation is obvious and the emphasis about equally divided.

So- and and so- clauses overused

However, the use of *and, so, and so* is so undiscriminating, so out of proportion to the need, that it has practically banished *since, because, so . . . that* from the ordinary vocabulary; the result is unfortunately not only vagueness and looseness, but extreme monotony.

c. Treat a relative clause as a subordinate element; do not make it coördinate with the principal clause by the use of *and* or *but*. (See **55**, *2*, NOTE 1.)

The *and which, but which* error

He is a brilliant scholar, *whose theories, however, cannot always be trusted*. [NOT: He is a brilliant scholar *but whose theories cannot always be trusted*].
He gets interesting results, *which can, moreover, be trusted*. [NOT: He gets interesting results *and which can be trusted*.]

The report just issued, *which concerns the water resources of the Rio Grande basin,* is a model of its kind. [NOT: The report just issued, *and which concerns the water resources of the Rio Grande basin,* is a model of its kind.]

NOTE. — In these cases the correct form omits the coördinating conjunction. The error may be avoided by retaining *and* or *but* and bringing to coördinate rank the elements that it connects:

He is a scholar *who is brilliant* but *whose theories cannot be trusted.*

He gets results, — and *they are results* that can be trusted.

The report *which has just been issued* and *which concerns the water resources* of the Rio Grande basin, is a model of its kind.

Principal elements to express principal ideas

2. Express major ideas by principal elements, minor ideas by subordinate elements.

Avoid *I cannot seem*

I *seem unable* to make any headway. [CARELESS: I *cannot seem* to make any headway.] — Logically the main verb is "seem," on which "(to be) unable" depends.

Subordination of main idea in a *when-* or *as-* clause

In some sentences the balance between principal and subordinate clauses is almost even, or, at least, casual.

As I was idly glancing over a New York paper, *my own name caught my eye.* [ALLOWABLE: I was idly glancing over a New York paper *when my own name caught my eye.*]

Just as the car was rounding the corner at high speed, *a child ran out into its very path.* [ALLOWABLE: The car was just rounding the corner at high speed *as a child ran out into its very path.*]

But in such cases, where one fact is recorded to make clear the time or setting of what is ac-

tually a more important fact, the more important fact runs the risk of being buried if it is expressed in the *when-* or *as-* clause.

54. Express accurately and unmistakably the relation of a subordinate element to the principal element.

Accurate indication of subordinate relation

1. Do not use a participial phrase as substitute for a clause introduced by a subordinating conjunction, unless the relation is clear beyond question.

Loose use of participial phrase

The submarine is a relatively new instrument of warfare, *which has proved its terrible effectiveness.* [NOT : The submarine is a relatively new instrument of warfare, *having proved its terrible effectiveness.*]

Though (because) her family was poor, she married a rich man. [NOT : *Her family being poor,* she married a rich man.]

When (because, though) she was annoyed, I was secretly delighted. [NOT : *She being annoyed,* I was secretly delighted.]

NOTE. — The participial construction is quite allowable if the relationship of ideas is immediately apparent.

Having been insulted, I vowed revenge.
The day's work done, I closed my desk.

2. Do not use an undeveloped subordinate clause unless the subject of the omitted verb is unmistakable.

Loose use of the undeveloped clause

1. My acquaintance with him, *when he was (I was) an engineer at the Navy Yard,* lasted over two years. [AMBIGUOUS : My acquaintance with him, *when an engineer at the Navy Yard,* lasted over two years.]
2. *When he was a small child, his father* was divorced from his mother. [NOT : *When a small child, his father* was divorced from his mother.]

3. Do not try to argue with her *when she is* (*you are*) *angry*. [NOT : Do not try to argue with her *when angry*.]

NOTE 1. — Observe that in 1 and 3 no one could possibly tell — unless from the context — which of the two persons concerned is referred to in the undeveloped clause.

NOTE 2. — As a rule, the undeveloped clause, if used, should introduce the sentence, so as to stand next to the subject of the principal clause, and thus to render the relation unmistakable.

While still a novice, she undertook to teach her younger sister. [NOT : She undertook to teach her younger sister, *while still a novice*.]

Accurate use of subordinating conjunctions

3. Introduce a subordinate clause by a subordinating conjunction accurately expressing the relation of the subordinate to the principal clause.

NOTE. — The following sections illustrate the correct use of several conjunctions that are persistently misused, with resultant incoherence of sentence structure. (See **As, Like, While,** in the list of misused words, **6.**)

***As* (not *like*)**

a. Use *as* (never *like*) to introduce a comparative clause. (*Like* is not a conjunction.)

I don't feel *as* you do about that [not *like*].
He acts *as* a true patriot should [not *like*].

Like is correctly used as an adverb with prepositional force (i.e., as *like to*) in such sentences as the following:

She looks *like* me, but thinks *like* her father.
She looks *like* me, but thinks *as* [not *like*] her father does.

b. Use *because, since, when, while, just as,* etc. (rather than *as*) to introduce causal or temporal

clauses except where the causal or temporal force of *as* is unmistakable. **Because, etc. (rather than *as*)**

Just as I was becoming hopelessly confused, she interrupted me [not *as*].
Since I was becoming hopelessly confused, she interrupted me [not *as*].

As is much overworked; in the interests of variety avoid steady use of *as* for *since, when,* etc., even in cases when the meaning is evident.

c. Use *such as* (in preference to *as*) meaning *for instance,* to introduce an example or a list of examples. **Such as (rather than *as*)**

Some problem plays, *such as* Galsworthy's "Justice," have been very successful. [NOT: Some problem plays, *as* Galsworthy's "Justice," have been very successful.]

As for *such as* was formerly in common use, but now it is seldom heard and is generally to be avoided.

d. Use *that, whether* (never *as, how, where, because,* etc.) to introduce a substantive clause that answers the question, "What?" **That, whether (not *as, how,* etc.)**

The girl told him *that* she was standing in the upper hall and overheard the conversation [not *how*].
He testified *that* he never accepted the unsubstantiated word of the defendant in the slightest matter [not *how*].
Did you read in the paper *that* there was a big fire down town [not *where*]?
I don't know *that* I can help you [not *as*].
I don't know *whether* he is here [not *as*].

DIVIDED USE: I don't know *whether* (*if*) it's true.—Ask *whether* (*if*) it's true. ("Whether" is preferable.) This use of *if,* dating back to the Anglo Saxon, is by some

I don't know whether or *I don't know if?*

authorities unquestioned ; others note that *if* is "now largely replaced by *whether*" (Webster) ; others condemn *if*, except in colloquial or poetic use, "for the obvious reason that when there is a common word [*whether*] meaning precisely a certain thing, a word meaning precisely another thing [*if*] should not be used for it without some special grounds," and they proceed to brand the common colloquial use as indolent when not purely careless or ignorant (New Standard).

Whenever the clause serves as a noun answering the question "What?" it is wrong to introduce it by a conjunction that answers the question "In what way?" (*how, as*) or "In what place?" (*where*).

DIVIDED USE : I'll tell you the reason *why* (*that*) I came.

Though (rather than *while*)

e. Prefer *though* to *while*, if there is chance that *while* would be construed even momentarily as purely temporal.

Though I stayed to finish my experiment, he left his undone. [NOT : *While* I stayed to finish my experiment, he left his undone.]

Otherwise, *while* is in good use, especially in colloquial speech, as an approximate equivalent of *though* (sometimes less strongly adversative) :

He was outwardly calm, *while* inwardly he was aflame with excitement.

While I disapprove his aim, I positively detest his methods.

Parallelism

Parallel terms for parallel ideas

55. Express parallel ideas in parallel terms.

NOTE. — Parallel ideas are coördinate ideas running side by side, similar in direction and in essential parts.

1. Clauses expressing parallel ideas about one person or thing should have the same subject, representing that person or thing.

Needless change of subject in parallel statements

1. *They* are well crystallized salts, and are to be regarded as sulphonates of hydrocoumarin. [Less Good : *They* are well crystallized salts, and *we* are to regard them as sulphonates of hydrocoumarin.]
2. *These experiments* have been carried out at slight expense and *they* have contributed valuable physiological information. [Less Good : *These experiments* have been carried out at slight expense, and *valuable physiological information* has been contributed by them.]
3. In 1865 *he* returned to Ireland and devoted himself wholly to the struggle for Irish freedom. [Less Good : In 1865 *he* returned to Ireland, and *the movement* to free that country became his one concern. — Or : In 1865 *he* returned to Ireland, and *the movement* to free Ireland was zealously undertaken.] .

Note 1. — Often what is apparently lack of unity is in fact lack of parallelism, lack of consistent maintenance of the point of view (sentence 3, the second bracketed form) ; the inherent unity is revealed when the clauses are brought into proper parallel relation.

Note 2. — Observe in sentence 3, the second bracketed form, the unwarranted shift from active to passive, which often accompanies a needless change of subject : e.g., " *The committee* undertook the investigation, and soon *it was ascertained by them* that the charges were groundless."

2. Elements parallel in position and function should correspond in grammatical structure.

Parallel construction of corresponding elements

1. He is *strong* and very *courageous*. [Less Good : He is *strong* and *of great courage*.]

2. Our children like *to play* alone more than *to play* with other children. [NOT : Our children like *to play* alone more than *playing* with other children.]
3. The accident occurred *because a sleepy signalman made a blunder* and *because the night was foggy*. [LESS GOOD : The accident occurred *on account of a blunder* made by a sleepy signalman *and because the night was foggy*.]
4. They need *leisure* and *ample funds*. [NOT : They need *leisure* and *to have ample funds*.]
5. I foresee for you neither *complete victory* nor *defeat*. [NOT : I foresee neither *complete victory* for you nor *that you will lose utterly*.]
6. He is of great value to us both *as an efficient organizer* and also *as a trained teacher*. [NOT : He is of great value to us both *as an efficient organizer* and *also he is a trained teacher*.]
7. The doctor told me of a man *whose back was broken* and *who still lives*. [NOT : The doctor told me of a man *whose back was broken* and *still he lives*.]
8. This is a new electric warm stage used *in determining* the presence of live spermatozoa, *for cultivation* of tumor cells, *for making* the Widal test, and *in the observation of* bacteria in a hanging drop. [NOT : This is a new electric warm stage used *to determine* the presence of live spermatozoa, *for use in cultivating* tumor cells, *when the Widal test is being made*, and *in the observation* of bacteria in a hanging drop.]

The correspondence should be as close as possible. As a rule, clause should be parallel with clause, phrase with phrase, word with word; infinitive should correspond to infinitive, gerund to gerund, adjective to adjective, etc. Of course it often happens that of two adjective modifiers, for example, one will be a word, another a phrase: "He is likeable and of

good repute." What we must avoid are (1) *needless shifts* in construction, however inconspicuous (sentences 1–3), and (2) *conspicuous shifts*, even if not utterly illogical, as from noun to infinitive or to substantive clause as direct object (sentences 4, 5), and (3) *fundamentally illogical shifts*, such as those from a subordinate to a principal element, or from an infinitive of purpose to a *when*-clause (sentences 6–8). The neglect of parallelism, very frequent in lists or list-like sentences, is illustrated in sentence 8.

NOTE 1. — The "and which" or "but which" error (see **53**, *1*, *c*) is from one point of view a failure in parallelism. The man who writes, "He is a brilliant scholar, but whose theories can't always be trusted" half realizes the parallel functions of "brilliant," and "whose theories can't always be trusted," — both of them adjective modifiers; if he fully realized the parallelism, he would give the ideas symmetrical expression: "He's a scholar *who is brilliant* but *whose theories can't always be trusted*," or, better, "He is a *brilliant* but not always *trustworthy* scholar."

NOTE 2. — Parallelism is emphasized by proper use of correlative conjunctions (see sentences 5, "neither . . . nor," and 6, "both . . . and also"). The correlative conjunctions should immediately precede the parallel sentence elements they connect. (See **45**.)

Unity

56. A sentence must express a unit of thought. **Every sentence a unit**

1. Avoid including too much in a sentence.

Our water supply is taken from three mountain springs. The garage is new this season. [NOT: Our water supply is taken from three mountain springs, and the garage is new this season.] **Too much in a sentence**

Though the entrance of the cave was completely screened from the road, he discovered it, and entered. The shadowy dampness of the interior threw a gloom over his spirit. [NOT : The shadowy dampness of the cave, the entrance of which was screened from the road outside, threw a gloom over his spirit.]

NOTE. — Unchecked combination of properly separate elements into one sentence results in the long, loosely strung sentence full of *and's* and *but's* — a wholly unjustifiable form of loose sentence:

As there were others named O'Donovan in the town, and it was the practice to add second names to distinguish persons of the same name, the residents called him O'Donovan Rossa, and this name that he had no part in choosing clung to him throughout his life, which ended last Tuesday after an illness of many months, caused by exposure and overexertion.

He tried to get a position with the Acme Powder Company, but he didn't succeed, and I am very glad, for last week they had an explosion there, and four men were killed and many were injured, but they say the loss of life was slight in comparison to that caused by an earlier explosion, which left the Company with a huge bill of damages to pay.

The crash occurred at 3 : 30 a.m., and the night was foggy, so the engineer apparently did not see the block signal, but whizzed past the tower and so his train crashed into the one ahead, and a score or more passengers were killed or injured as a result.

Too little in a sentence

2. Avoid expressing in a sentence less than one complete thought.

1. Arnold spoke in strong protest against the proposed censorship. [NOT : Arnold spoke on the subject of the proposed censorship. In his speech he protested strongly against it.]

2. The Mountain House is at Pine Ridge, in the heart of the mountains, yet with excellent railroad connections. [NOT : The Mountain House is at Pine Ridge. In the heart of the mountains, yet with excellent railroad connections.]
3. He insisted that he was innocent, and that a conspiracy had ruined him. [NOT : He insisted that he was innocent. And that a conspiracy had ruined him.]

Do not scatter through two or more sentences a thought that properly constitutes a unit (sentence 1); the result is verbosity as well as disunity.

Do not allow a dependent part of a sentence — clause or phrase — to stand as if it were a complete sentence (sentences 2, 3).

NOTE. — In extremely informal communications — ordinary conversation and very familiar letters, for example — phrases, subordinate clauses, and the like, may stand alone. A limited degree of liberty in this matter is accorded to the accomplished writer even in familiar essays, editorials, public addresses, and the like:

This will, indeed, prove difficult of demonstration. *Because it is not true!*

This privilege should be exercised, however, only to gain definite rhetorical effects, and only by those who can nicely estimate such effects; it is not recognized in ordinary, businesslike communication and is never granted to the mere learner.

General Consistency and Completeness

57. The subject and the predicate of a sentence must be consistent. **Consistency between subject and predicate**

1. The subject and the predicate verb must be fully consistent with each other.

Predicate verb

The *source* of his defeat *was* lack of self confidence. — Or : His *defeat came from* lack of self confidence. [Not : The *source* of his defeat *came from* lack of self confidence.]

The *subject* of the article *is* the labor problem. — Or : The *article deals with* the labor problem. [Not : The *subject* of the article *deals with* the labor problem.]

Predicate adjective

2. The subject and the predicate adjective with its modifiers must be in full accord.

Much that he said was *incredible.* [Not : The *truth* of much that he said was *impossible.*]

A paragraph consisting of a single sentence *and one* covering two pages may be *equally correct.* [Not : *A paragraph* consisting of a single sentence *or one* covering two pages may be *equally correct.*] — *Either one* of two alternatives cannot be *equally* correct.

Predicate noun or pronoun

3. The subject and the predicate substantive with its modifiers must be fully consistent with each other.

Friday evening is *the date* of the dance. — Or : The dance occurs Friday evening. [Not : *Friday evening* is *the dance.*]

Definitions

a. The following special case under this rule demands special attention: A subject substantive, if defined in the predicate, must be defined by a substantive (word, phrase, or clause), not by an adverbial modifier.

The very prevalent tendency is to substitute for the defining substantive an adverbial clause introduced by *because, where, when,* etc., or by an adverbial phrase (prepositional).

The reason is *that I am poor.* [NOT : *The reason* is *because I am poor.*]

Not *The reason is because . . .*; not *Oxidation is when . . .*, etc.

Oxidation is *the process* by which a substance combines with oxygen. [NOT : *Oxidation* is *when a substance combines with oxygen.*]

The peroration of a speech is *the concluding part.* [NOT : *The peroration* of a speech is *where you bring it to a conclusion.*]

His *purpose* is *an increase* in efficiency. [NOT : His *purpose* is *for an increase* in efficiency.]

The *subject* of my paper is *aviation.* [NOT : The subject of my paper is *on aviation.*]

The *title* of the essay is *" On Gardens."* [NOT : The *title* of the essay is *on " Gardens."*] — Here " On Gardens," being quoted as a title, is a substantive; but " on ' Gardens,' " in the bracketed form, is a prepositional phrase incapable of defining the noun, " title."

NOTE. — When the defining substantive, which would name a place or a time, is omitted, the defining term used is an adjective modifier, one which necessarily expresses the idea of place or time. Therefore it might be confused with an adverbial modifier and thus seem to violate the rule ; but analysis will show that it serves as an adjective.

His place ? Oh, *it* is [the place] *on the fence !*

The *time* to speak out is [the time] *when you are sure of your facts.*

58. A substantive and its appositional modifier must be consistent.

Consistency between noun or pronoun and its appositive

He became president of the league ; the position was an honorable one. — OR : He was elected to the *presidency* of the league, an honorable *position.* [NOT : He became *president* of the league, an honorable *position.*]

He exercises *imagination,* a *faculty* essential to true scientists. [NOT : He exercises *his imagination,* a *quality* essential to true scientists.] — " His [par-

ticular] imagination" cannot be said to be essential to *scientists;* and, as something exercised, imagination is viewed as a power or faculty, not as a quality or attribute.

Logical comparison

59. The expression of a comparison must be consistent and complete.

Consistency between the terms

1. The terms of a comparison must be consistent.

In striking contrast to *the previous free issue of information,* comes *the refusal* to give any information concerning the conference held last night. [NOT: In striking contrast to *the previous conference, the lid* has been clamped down on information concerning last night's conference.]

The *loss of life* was heavy in comparison to *that* caused by the wreck at the same point several years ago. [NOT: The *loss of life* was heavy in comparison to *the wreck* at the same point several years ago.]

Clear indication of the standard of comparison

2. It is well to express the standard of comparison by one term of the comparison, if it is not obvious from the context beyond any chance of doubt or misunderstanding.

Vague use of *more, different,* etc.

The boys didn't care for either of the two newcomers, though as time went on they liked Charley *better than they did before.* — OR: . . . *better than they liked his brother.* [NOT: The boys didn't care for either of the two newcomers, though as time went on they liked Charley *better.*]

This chapter deals *more than the other* with the modern stage. — OR: This chapter deals with the modern *rather than with the medieval stage.* [NOT: This chapter deals *more* with the modern stage.] — Often *more* used vaguely, as it is here, means little more than *to some extent, somewhat.*

By the way, I've just read an interesting article; the account it gives of the political situation is very *different from the ordinary* (*account*). [NOT: . . . the account it gives of the political situation is so *different*.]

3. The terms of a comparison must be full enough to indicate unmistakably the exact nature of the comparison. **Incomplete comparison**

I admire *him* much more than I do *John*. — OR: I *admire him* much more than *John does*. [NOT: I admire him much more than John.] — Note that the form in brackets may mean either one of two very different things.

I like the new chauffeur better than *father does*. [NOT: I like *the new chauffeur* better than *father*.]

When the comparative degree of an adverb (e.g., *more*) modifies a verb with a direct object, the verb must not be omitted from the second half of the comparison if there would be any doubt whether the noun in the second half were subject or object of the omitted verb. (In the absence of the verb, the assumption usually would be that the noun is object.)

4. An object must be compared with *any other* object of its own class, and with *any* object of a class not its own. ***More than any* and *more than any other***

a. With *any other* object of its own class:

This poison is more deadly than *any other*. [NOT: This poison is more deadly than *any*.]

b. With *any* object of a class not its own:

This bureau does more effective work than *any* under the previous administrations. [NOT: This bureau does more effective work than *any other* under the previous administrations.]

DIVIDED USAGE : This poison is more deadly than *any other* (than *any*). — This poison is as deadly as *any other* (as *any*). — (The form with *any* instead of *any other* is common enough to require recording, but it is distinctly undesirable because illogical and avoidable.)

***Best of all* (not *best of any, of all others*)**

5. An object is to be noted as the supreme member among *all* of its class (not among *any* or among *any* or *all others* of its class).

This is the most thorough of *the reports* I've seen. [NOT : This is the most thorough of *any report* I've seen. — NOT : This is the most thorough of *any other report* I've seen.]

Your report is the best of *(all) those* I've seen. [NOT : Your report is the best of *any* I've seen. — NOT : Your report is the best of *all others* I've seen.]

DIVIDED USAGE : Your report is the best of *all* (*any*). — This form with *any* is also common (see DIVIDED USAGE under *4, b*) but it is distinctly undesirable because illogical and avoidable.

Consistent use of causal clause

60. Use a causal clause to express the reason or basis for the statement on which it depends (not, as a rule, the reason for *belief* in that statement).

***For*-clause loosely used**

Error in this respect is usually made with *for*-clauses, less often with *because*-clauses. Except in colloquial communication, be careful to include in the principal clause some mention of your *belief* in the fact announced, if the following *for*-clause gives the reason for that *belief* rather than for the *fact.*

We *know* that Ben Jonson admired and even loved Shakespeare, *for Jonson himself says so.* [INACCURATE : Ben Jonson *admired and even loved* Shakespeare, for Jonson himself says so.]

It *may be assumed* that the committee will report unfavorably, *for several members have given intimations to that effect.* [INACCURATE : The committee *will report* unfavorably, for several members have given intimations to that effect.]

I *know* he took them, *because I saw him do it!* [INACCURATE : He *took* them, because I saw him do it !]

COLLOQUIAL : Tomorrow will be fair, because the sun's red tonight. — Your're right, he's eighteen, for he's just two years older than I. — (This usage is allowable because, for conversational purposes, the *suggestion* of opinion is strong enough, though opinion is not explicitly mentioned.)

61. Avoid shifts, breaks, and duplications in the general structure of a sentence.

Consistency in general structure

FAULTY :

The next step is to remove earthy materials, *such as* silicates *and so forth.* — [Often a speaker, forgetting that he is setting out to give merely an illustration or an illustrative list, ends with *and so forth,* which indicates that the list aspires to be all-inclusive.]

It is *as* disloyal to the community to shield an offense, *just as much as* to commit an offense.

He is a man *who,* when he had achieved a moderate success, *he was* willing to lie back and make no further effort.

The picture which Whitman gives of the water, the sunlight, the boats, the crowds, the general excited confusion, *all these* recur day after day.

He told us *that,* in the existing circumstances, at least, and possibly in any circumstances, *that* the plan was quite impracticable. — [This careless error is particularly common.]

NOTE. — In this class falls the common oral error, "John *he* did it," for "John did it."

Consistency of reference (pronouns, adverbs, etc.)

62. Avoid miscellaneous inconsistencies of reference.

FAULTY:

One becomes more and more angry as the impudence of the demand reveals itself to *you.*

He makes *the reader* wonder how the story will end, and thus keeps *us* interested.

He declares that *he* is "going to Colorado for *my* vacation, and *do* not expect to return within six weeks." (The direct and indirect methods should not be combined in quoting one sentence if the shift involves change of person and tense within the quoted unit. Quote the whole either directly or indirectly.)

This proves that a popular saying is not *thereby* proved true. [CLEAR: This proves that a saying is not necessarily true because it is popular.]

So much so

He loves them, so much *so* that he gives his life for them.

The pageant was a great success, so much *so* that it is to be repeated.

NOTE. — The second *so* in *so much so* should refer to an adjective, not to a verb or noun. The following are correct:

He *loves* them, *so much* that he gives his life for them.

He is *devoted* (*loyal*) to them, *so much so* that he would give his life for them.

The pageant was a splendid *spectacle, so splendid* that it is to be repeated.

The pageant was *successful, so much so* that it is to be repeated.

Consistency in tone

63. The different parts of a sentence must be consistent in substance and tone.

1. Avoid unexpected shifts from the serious to the jocose, the material to the spiritual, the dignified to the colloquial or slangy, and the like (unless

such shifts are used deliberately for facetious or other effect).

Inappropriate mingling of slang with formal speech, etc.

FAULTY:

He was a man *of stout build and of honor.*

Hull House is made attractive by *its warm colored rugs, its comfortable furniture,* and *the spirit of Jane Addams.*

The chairman expressed the unanimous judgment of his committee when he reported that certain details of the plan required further consideration, but that, as a whole, *it was O.K.*

2. Avoid shifts within one sentence from the figurative to the literal, or from one figurative conception to a very different one (*mixed figure*):

Mixed figures

A thousand lives were *snuffed out at one blow.*

When the driver finally stopped the car, *willing hands rushed to his aid, believing* he was seriously hurt.

Exercise 1

[This exercise furnishes a general test for common grammatical errors; a few sentences involve special test of the knowledge of verb forms. If the exercise reveals need for concentrated work on special points, the exercises for grammatical review in the Appendix may be used.]

Rewrite the following sentences, in each case choosing the proper form of the word or phrase indicated, or, where two forms are given, choosing the correct one. After each sentence state briefly why you use the form you do, and why you reject the others, if two or more are suggested.

1. He is a student (whom, who) I think will make his mark. 2. John, (was, were) you saying that you wanted (that, those) kind of (coat, a coat, coats)? 3. Well, it

is a popular style, but it (don't, doesn't) wear well. 4. Pleasure (don't, doesn't) always openly reward (him, he) who has done his duty. 5. Pleasure in one of her many shapes (reward, rewards) everyone who (has, have) done (his, their) duty. 6. I don't know (as, that) I can. 7. Send up to my office (whoever, whomever) drew (those, them) plans. 8. (This kind of pedometer is, those kind of pedometers are) different (than, from, to) any I have seen before. 9. I, his own father, (is, am) forced to admit that his story (doesn't, don't) seem consistent. 10. Yes, it's (I, me); I'm feeling (nicely, well, good) again, thank you. 11. There isn't (no room, room) in this office for (those, that) sort of loafers! 12. Mr. Curtis, (were, was) you in a quandary last year as to (who, whom) would make the best president? Our committee can't decide (who, whom) to nominate. 13. He never would want to offend you and (I, me), he says; and I'm sure I don't know (who, whom) he ought to treat considerately, if not (we, us). 14. I (haven't, have) hardly enough time, but I suppose I have more time than (he, him). 15. (Who, whom) will Harvey vote for? I can't find out (who, whom), but certainly not for you or (me, I). 16. The greatest travelers are undoubtedly (we, us) Americans. 17. He (don't, doesn't) believe it is Nan (who, whom) they have in mind; but it will turn out to be (her, she), you'll see! 18. I've just been reading (that, where) someone who was in England this summer says that (he, they) found conditions there much as usual, in spite of the war. 19. I have (drank, drunken, drunk) that mineral water for some time; you'll find a bottle of it (setting, sitting) on the top shelf. 20. I stopped her in the very act of (setting, sitting) the alcohol bottle within a foot of the flame. 21. I (will, shall) try harder, I'm resolved; I hope that I (will, shall) succeed. 22. She always meets people very (easily, easy) and looks (charmingly, charming); we (shall, will) be fortunate to have her on the reception committee. 23. I can't think of (no, any) better way. 24. You (can't help liking, can't help but like) him. 25. You (can't help but, can't but) like him. 26. We selected Miss Neale because there is no one except (she, her, herself) just now (whom, who)

we think reliable. 27. It seemed to me that I (hadn't, had) hardly (laid, lain) down when father called. 28. It seemed to me that I (hadn't, had) hardly (laid, lain) my head on the pillow when father called from below, "Get up, Jim; the sun's already (rose, risen), and you know how much must be (done, did) before night!" 29. I don't at all approve of (his, him) speaking at such a meeting. 30. He (don't, doesn't) seem to know that old saying, "Best let sleeping dogs (lay, lie)." 31. He spoke far too (rapid, rapidly) to be understood. 32. (Who, whom) does he hold responsible? Each of us (are, is) glad, I'm sure, that (its, it's) not (themselves, he, he himself, himself). 33. (Rise, raise) up, man, and say what you think! 34. The plan (don't, doesn't) appeal to me; I'm determined I (shall, will) work against (its, it's, it) being adopted. 35. Neither his father (or, nor) his mother (are, is) sure (but what, but that) he is guilty. 36. I (will be, shall be, am) happy to accept your invitation for next Thursday. 37. We don't know (who, whom) it is, if not (they, them). 38. You don't feel (like, as) I do about it. 39. A box of nails (were, was) on the table. 40. She was not (as, so) angry as (him, he). 41. Everyone of (we, us) boys (are, is) trying to make the squad. 42. He smiled at me (real, really) (pleasant, pleasantly). She looked very (pleasant, pleasantly) too.

Exercise 2

Point out all errors in the following sentences. Be prepared to give orally each incorrect sentence in correct form, and to give your reasons for every change.

If you think any sentence is correct as it stands, be prepared to prove that it is correct.

1. The strength of the British forces in Serbia were not given. 2. He works as a plumber's helper days, and as a newsboy by night. 3. Whoever esteems their country highest should condemn her strongest if wrong. 4. There has been frequent but fruitless petitions. 5. I will try

and relieve the present situation, but I will neither accept or even listen to another plan that he proposes. 6. It is the duty of every commander to first provide for the safety of their passengers and crews before leaving the ships themselves. 7. The most popular feature are the saddle horses. 8. Under the roof, beaten by the warm spring rains and brushed in the winter by the bare branches, was to be found our favorite haunts. 9. Our protests have not been heard, nor have our threats been effective. 10. I have in no way encouraged him or have I even talked with him. 11. The issues of the hour are not that simple ; still, they are not so complex but what we may hope to adequately meet them. 12. The New English Dictionary is one of the most stupendous tasks that have ever been undertaken by scholars. 13. They will undoubtedly now begin and drive out the invaders from their territory. 14. The trial is one of the most significant that has taken place within our memory. 15. Mexico, together with several other small countries, constitute Central America. 16. I would like for you to keep a record of everyone voting " aye " and " nay " on this ballot. 17. Not you but he is mistaken. 18. He quotes several family budgets where the income is less than two dollars per day. 19. We have not as many causes for distrust as you suspect. 20. Neither of us have told our wife of the firm's failure. 21. Don't adopt some one's else opinion without you make it your own. 22. My brother feels different about it than he used to. 23. All my friends but he have discouraged me from the attempting it. 24. None of them are responsible but he. 25. Myself and wife desire tickets. 26. The crudeness and vulgarity which appears in this kind of a book have their evil effect on their young readers. 27. One hundred and twenty dollars were the sum total. 28. One thousand dollars in fresh crisp one dollar bills was contributed by one thousand supporters of the movement. 29. He is dead, but I, his partner, is living to carry on his work. 30. The committee is not agreed as to the nature of their report. 31. The committee is in favor of the change. 32. The committee lives at such scattered points that a joint meeting is difficult. 33. Either one or the other of the leaders have evidently lost their head.

34. None of these hypotheses are considered proven. 35. A small number of the class was reported as "unsatisfactory." 36. A small number of the class was at the service of the rest to look up general references. 37. Politics are not as interesting to me as philanthropy's problems. 38. My reasons for this move — and I only desire to mention the matter once — is clear. 39. I will not be doing my duty if I do not attend every meeting and take active part in them. 40. She is Bentley's ('05) cousin. 41. Williams or I am sure to be elected. 42. The acoustics of the hall are very good. 43. There is fine surf bathing, fish dinners, and popular amusements. 44. Neither of the two battles were decisive victories. 45. None of these borrowings, however, have effected the structure of our speech. 46. All possible candidates but one has withdrawn. 47. The minority differs among themselves as to the course it would recommend. 48. Each of the belligerents suffer because their munitions have begun to unexpectedly fall short. 49. Not one of his objections and attacks have moved me. 50. The minority are resolved to protest as a body.

Exercise 3

Rewrite the following sentences, improving them in every way possible. Be prepared to justify every change, or to defend constructions that you decide are correct as they stand.

1. We offer an interesting lot of boy's books for really improving reading this Christmas. 2. Chaucer uses the rondel form quite freely which shows a continental influence on him. 3. Held by their enemies, the Russians would find that Warsaw greatly hindered them renewing their advance. 4. I wish I had a parrot like Mary ! 5. His critics complain that a positive and decided word from his lips does not necessarily mean that he will act in that way when occasion demands. 6. These mens' purposes are hard to even conjecture, much less fathom. 7. Five days after preaching to his congregation, his funeral ser-

mon was preached from the same pulpit. 8. He acts as if he was without a single human feeling! 9. Didn't you say that it was Shakespeare that said thought was free? (In *Twelfth Night* Maria says, "Now, sir, 'Thought is free.'") 10. Couched in the friendliest terms though it is, the Government yields nothing in its reply. 11. His reply was of that equivocal kind that really said nothing at all. 12. Having virtually completed the conquest of this area, the military experts are wondering if the invaders will not turn to the eastern theater of war and deliver there a similar smashing blow to that just administered in the west. 13. I would hate him to have missed the five years of penal servitude that he's now facing! 14. By publishing this warning dogs suffering from rabies may be detected in time and made way with. 15. I hope he comes in good time. Will you be as glad to see him arriving as me, I wonder? 16. Lincoln Beechy's gate receipts, charging one dollar admission, were only $300. 17. John and Harry, though several years apart in age, are more equal in ability than the twins are. 18. After having bitten Graves so savagely, I could see that the poor dog was really penitent. 19. He is the most public spirited of his fellow citizens. 20. Stumbling in haste, her cup fell to the ground. 21. Buyers like our wares better than our competitors. 22. He asserted that the high-school students today wrote no better than they did twenty-five years ago. 23. After listening to his lecture, the fresh-water jelly fishes seemed to me very interesting and important, which I had never suspected before. 24. The pages of the "funny paper" attracts the child through crude drawings that resemble the insane. 25. I had been less dubious about the plan than the chairman; but after one interview with him, I became decidedly more skeptical. 26. If I was aware of any good reason, I would do as you ask. 27. I understood that the deed was to have been signed at this meeting. 28. It transpired that the murdered man was the father of seven children, whose wife soon after the tragedy became again a mother. 29. The speaker disclaimed expecting the millenium when women vote, but she does believe there would not have been this war were women during the last

quarter of a century better informed on public matters and thus able to have wielded a potent influence on the men who have been at the helm. 30. I dislike him more heartily than Harry. 31. Our system of defense ought to have been gradually perfected, so that now we might have had a force to effectively protect us. 32. For the last fifteen minutes Schofield had been walking up and down Miss Abbott's library when presently he stopped short. 33. Think which of the two toys you want most to buy before you begin counting your money. 34. I have no other explanation except laziness to offer. 35. No comparison brings home the artificiality of the American short story so well as a comparison with the Russian. 36. I would have been glad to have helped him. 37. He must finish it, he was clearly told, before last Thursday. 38. I liked better than any speaker the one which had last place on the program. 39. My baggage being stolen, I was in an embarrassing position. 40. Make this index more complete. 41. He was bitten on the arm by a mosquito which developed, through irritation and other infection, into a carbuncle. 42. Asked for a statement relative to the proposed action, it was announced at the lawyer's office that the paper filed is confidential. 43. The sportive wind blew on, and, turning towards the direction from which it came, a dark blue stretch of gleaming water appeared. 44. Having finished our feast, Tom called our attention to Edwards. 45. Utterly unreliable and unscrupulous, you realized there was no help for you in him. 46. He portrays beauty, which is the poet's chief function. 47. She is to appear in a new comedy, several of which she has under consideration. 48. The situation in Illinois is no different from Indiana.

Exercise 4

Rewrite the following sentences; after each rewritten sentence state briefly and clearly in writing what are the errors or defects that you have tried to remove.

1. The University sent a man and woman delegate; each expected to have been bored by the conference, but

brought back a glowing account of their experience. 2. A careful business writer don't write in an article for publication % for per cent, nor # for no., nor "Prof. Jones" for "Professor Jones." 3. The castle on this island was commenced in 1634 ; the commander killed by lightning July 16, 1664 ; repaired and enlarged, 1696. 4. In passing down the harbor the Charlestown Navy Yard was on the left, unfortunately, however, the night was too dark to see anything except the dim outlines of what I very much hoped was a real man of war at anchor. 5. I do not write to merely congratulate you on your so honorable anniversary, nor to tell you that your writing has always been to me a guide, philosopher, and friend, and which has influenced me in the forming and holding of my own opinions. 6. Boston has two principal depots, known as the North and South Stations. 7. A study of grammar alone is not enough to acquire good speaking nor good writing habits. 8. Owing to the post office spending many millions annually in carrying the great mass of periodicals below cost, it has become so loaded with them as to necessitate the sending them as freight. 9. It is a wonderful picture of him on rice paper with such dreamy eyes. 10. Constant complaint coming both from schools and colleges lead us to carefully reconsider our present system. 11. He's the quickest runner of the two : in fact he almost did a mile in record time this afternoon. 12. I cannot seem to make any headway, its rather a hard task that I have and the odds is against me. 13. In the library you will find Webster's and Worcester's Dictionary. 14. The peculiarities of my mode of expression prevent me reaching the wide public that I would like to. 15. He says he only criticizes our lack of foresight ; let me suggest that his party had eight years in office in which to adequately prepare as he now clamors that we should be. 16. It is the opinion of many that we are in danger of, and in fact have already, tolerated affronts that we ought to actively resent. 17. Put a comma after the third and fourth line. 18. I can understand why you have not and ought not to encourage the project ; but I mean to. 19. His decision will not only profoundly effect the course of the present war but also will result

either in America losing or else far advancing her position in the community of nations. 20. Passion is now too high to judge fairly. 21. The chances of our team winning is as slight if not slighter than a week ago. 22. The test came sooner and in a different way than we had anticipated. 23. Morton stood quietly watching while he pilfered the change drawer and then turned and walked back into the office. 24. Will you please set this caption above the list of distinguished visitors in red ink? 25. Received your letter and have referred it to the bureau of adjustment. 26. Tommy explained in tears that he had mixed and administered the dose which had made Bobby become suddenly and severely ill just for fun. 27. The Government must demand not only the payment of a monetary indemnity but that reparation must be made for the breach of treaty obligations. 28. My newspaper reading is for various ends. First, to obtain the news and keep posted on current topics, second, it broadens my point of view and interests me in new subjects, and last, to put me on an equal plane of conversation with people whom I meet. 29. They met the banker and his lawyer on their way to the dressmaker's. 30. The New York scientist who discovered the new system is Dr. Henry Smith of West 120th Street, and who has spent more than twenty years in the study of the wireless. 31. Fort Winthrop was begun in 1808, but later abandoned by the government. 32. The affair has gone too far now to interfere, though, as you know, I was opposed to the marriage; but, being accomplished, honor and policy alike demands me refraining from any further opposition. 33. Severe shock was sustained by some of the rescued, among whom were many women and children, but no serious injuries. 34. Rising at six-thirty, the household work was done by nine, leaving ample time to think about my loneliness. 35. He acts as though he was as strong as if not stronger than he was a few years ago, while really he ought only to begin resuming his strenuous out-door exercise very gradually. 36. There were several good reasons, including the confusion and uproar, and that what attention he dared to now and then divert from steering the car was pretty well absorbed by the girl at his side. 37. She was

a beautiful woman with premature snow-white hair. 38. A large crowd fought for places where the bridal party might be seen for half an hour before it came down the steps. 39. Neither my instinct or my sober reason approve the taking this step. 40. John only stole it because you told him to. 41. He wrote that the check was lost very promptly. 42. The principle of merchant ships carrying arms for self defense has been generally recognized. 43. I merely hoped to delay it, not to completely hinder it being adopted. 44. In serving the public is included many other duties. 45. He drank a glass of lemon water, a row of which were placed on a tray by the wall, and smoked another cigarette.

Exercise 5

Rewrite the following sentences, improving them in every way possible; recast completely if it seems advisable to do so.

1. We not only claim that this tire is as durable if not more durable than any on sale in the country, but it's also the cheapest for it's quality of any tire we know of. 2. On board were fifteen officers that had come that far on their way to replace fifteen brother officers that had only crossed the sea four weeks previous. 3. This was formerly called Crane Island, and contained twenty acres in 1639, pirates were gibbetted here in 1724, and also a burial place for pirates in 1798. 4. If anyone of you who have passed the meridian of life want to become a happy schoolboy or girl again, either join this kind of a class or the other that I spoke of. 5. Located entirely on our own property, the surrounding country wooded nearly to its shores with young spruce and white birch is Glenn Lake. 6. Boston's first name was Trimontaine which received its derivation from the three hills, Copp's Hill at the north, one at the east " Fort Hill," the other at the west " Beacon Hill," it was named Boston in honor of the birthplace of the Rev. John Cotton, their second minister, who was expected at that time from Boston, England. 7. There is not hardly any doubt but what very interesting data

is at hand, indeed much evidence could be collected from most any subscriber, if anything like a complete record was kept, as I fear it is not, of the inconveniences suffered because of the president of the company's inefficiency. 8. I think it is both the most authentic and also is the least given to exaggeration of any newspaper. 9. Perhaps because of it's derivation the term " lyric " always suggests to me a song, but a song is the expression of an emotion, so lyric poetry is the expression of a poet's own feelings. 10. It seems to me one of my most important if not my most important duty to call the public's attention to the glaring inefficiency of the service being rendered at present and during the past summer by the traction company which seems to be growing worse. 11. The city was never laid out in accordance with a fixed plan, so its growth has followed a natural course, the streets, however irregular their plan, join by the most direct route the places between which is the great proportion of traffic, and once learned it is one of the most accessible of cities, in spite of the fact that many acres in the very center of the business section is devoted to parks and the preservation of old cemeteries and historic buildings. 12. Next to that one will be struck by the revelation of where Senator Blank got his tariff ideas from, he got them from the " big business " concern that he has so much stock in. 13. Of course I understood how you felt about it and were glad to give up your time and be there, yet nevertheless it gave me such a feeling of confidence and comfort to have had you there. 14. Signs may weaken our faith instead of strengthen it. 15. He is as rude if not ruder than most " boors," and is tolerated. 16. By teaching the lad patiently and long, the most glaring evidences of deficiency was removed ; but even so he was only able to stand at the foot of his form. 17. Of course we don't make a boy go on studying mathematics when he don't need to, for if he knows the essential processes, that is enough, and his employer won't care whether he knows all about the theory or not, but he will want him to know how to make any business calculation quickly and accurately, and so we hold him strictly to a business man's practical standard of requirement. 18. If American literature would be given the

same opportunity to invent and experiment which has been given to journalism, then we will realize that now as ever there is literary genius in America. 19. Every seat was full and the whole audience was enthused over the performance. 20. The kitchen, consisting of two gas stoves and some hooks on the wall, had been established in the wide passage way ; several lockers served as closets, while the ice boxes were in an adjoining hall. 21. The two hundred guests formed in line in the hall and upon the signal being given entered the dining room and were supplied with a tray holding a paper plate and napkin and eating utensils. 22. One pump in a crowded area and which is moreover in a most unsanitary condition is often the only running water available for twenty families. 23. I was so anxious to come to a decision that I even voted for Blake ; but I would have preferred to have had Tenney for president. All of us, I fear, will not be satisfied with the outcome. 24. Indeed, I expected to have been able to speak from a platform with all my audience beneath me, but instead I find that the majority of my audience is far above me and therefore looks down on me, instead of me looking down on them. 25. He is a tall ungainly man and has the habit of quoting Shakespeare or Dante at you at unexpected moments. 26. I have looked in vain for confirmation and refutation of his standard ; there seem to be neither any direct evidence for his assertion nor against. 27. One has the right to be alone, and we can have this privacy if we will. 28. Lincoln has effectively disposed of all such suggestions when he said, " It is not best to swap horses while crossing the river."

Exercise 6

1. Rewrite the following sentences, improving them in every way possible; in some cases it may be necessary to study the sentence to discover the real meaning, and then to recast completely.

1. We claim a decided advantage for our coal on account of being fresh mined and housed in pockets, and

because it is sheltered from the elements, also from any dampness from the ground. 2. When the flask is smelt when it appears colorless it has a disagreeable odor, as it has when it appears brown color. 3. People like those which were there then are still there. 4. The woman then said, when she saw the prisoners, " Instead of giving you water you deserve to be shot ! " 5. When the author is interested in what he is telling you, it makes it much more so for the reader. 6. By living and working well, the result will be happiness. 7. The only expenditures that we have to make are postage stamps. 8. There is more power in Acme Auto Oil. [This is a sentence standing alone as an advertisement.] 9. This newspaper has spread broadcast throughout the whole press every kind of false statement far faster than we could contradict them. 10. That silk is very expensive but good, I wish I was rich enough to buy it. Perhaps if I was only a little less prudent, I would dare to. 11. Women, old and young, the speaker averred, are to be found in every community without a vocation, who long for some definite work in the world who could be secured to actively aid us in this proposition. 12. The passengers and battered ships together with the crew of each is expected to be brought here on the steamer *Mexicana* from Norfolk, to which place they had been first transferred by the revenue cutter *Onondaga*. 13. At Quincy the interest of outsiders always turn to the old stone church, one of the earliest though not the earliest Unitarian edifice in America, and the birthplace and home of John Adams and John Hancock. 14. The difference in tone of the songs in these groups are marked, their rhythm and content are very different, too. 15. Upon leaving the Union Station, Ninth Street takes one to the heart of the city, a crowded business district and which will interest them especially by its buildings of up to date character. 16. I know one of them was studying philosophy all last summer for he said his degree depended on him passing it in the fall. 17. Let us stand for the rights of humanity that all warfare even between civilized combatants have in the past and will always ignore. 18. The people were proud of him and admired him but they were above all affectionate towards

him, this was the predominate feeling among them. 19. Miss Mary Craddock left yesterday for Estes Park, Colo., she had expected to leave last week but was detained on account of her mother being so poorly. 20. The floors and six feet up of the walls is of concrete. 21. While taking this picture, two soldiers were apparently seizing a welcome opportunity for a bath, by the smiles on their faces the men are certainly enjoying themselves immensely. 22. One can from this periodical conceive a very concise but definite and broadening bird's eye view of current events. 23. Horton may be counted on to assail without fear or favor ; with the exception, of course, that for whomever it is the fashion to deride he will gallantly wield his literary cudgels. 24. The camp is at one hundred feet elevation above the river. 25. Unfortunately, a meddling instinct asserting itself with his chief, Mr. Smith believing his appointed domain was being systematically encroached upon, decided to resign. 26. The prisoner, leaning forward in the chair, his face twitching nervously and clasping and unclasping his hands, listened to the unexpected colloquy, raising no objections either to his counsel demanding that he be excused for the day or to the demand of the State that the examination proceed in the evening. 27. Vines threaded their way through the cracks in the rocks and stretching out were mirrored on the water, disturbed only by the center ripples caused by a steady stream dropping from an iron pipe incased in a tree trunk reaching out over the pool. 28. The play is made up of excellences of detail, which is much harder to make clear to you than a story. 29. Each guest then took her seat ; for this two hundred chairs had been brought in from the near by recitation rooms. 30. The whole bottle becomes brown in color and then fades out. 31. I had and have as much right to leave out useless letters in a word in my correspondence, just as much as a rich man has to ride in a motor car rather than in a dog cart in vogue in his father's day. 32. Elizabeth, as a whole, did not seem to fully appreciate the literature of her time. 33. In some states they pay a rental like I thought they ought to provide for in this bill, but we have failed to do it. 34. A pamphlet con-

taining the charter of the association, with the several amendments thereto, and that includes the statutes of the Executive Board will be sent upon request, addressed to the President of the Association. 35. At Easter time he displayed hyacinths and Easter eggs, and made the shop redolent, not only with perfumes but bright with an Easter touch.

2. Rewrite the following professional announcement, improving it in every way possible:

To my patrons:

With the greatest enthusiasm and pleasure which always accompanies he who honestly accomplishes a coveted goal, I wish to announce to my friends and patrons the forming of a partnership between Dr. J. H. Smith, formerly of Springfield, and myself. This change is purely the result of an increased patronage, which grew too large for the individual attention of Dr. Jones — believing, as we do, in the general inferiority and carelessness of the assistant who is hired by the week on a salary, hence this partnership with Dr. Smith, who leaves a large patronage in his home city, and comes with unquestioned testimonials. Dr. Jones will devote his entire time to the use of Analgesia, and the permanent proven cure of Pyorrhea. Dr. Smith will handle the general office practice, and our patrons are assured the same perfect operating as they have enjoyed in the past. Patients will easily distinguish the superior workmanship and conscientious application to duty, over that of the hired dental assistant, whose interest in the patients' welfare is limited by his weekly salary.

Dr. W. G. Jones.

3. Rewrite the following news item, improving it in every way possible:

While the nation thrilled with relief at the news of Wednesday that the *Philadelphia* and the *Saxonia* had been searched at sea and that the recently disclosed plot to dynamite one of these ocean liners had failed, the

Atlantic Transport liner *Minnehaha*, like the *Philadelphia*, one of the International Mercantile Marine ships, was racing toward Halifax, one hold ablaze from an explosion and packed in others 1000 cases of cordite and hundreds of loaded shells, cartridges, and high explosives.

The news was received here yesterday morning, and Captain Clare wirelessed that he hoped to reach Halifax by ten o'clock this morning.

CHAPTER THREE

PARAGRAPHS

64. "THE paragraph is our unit of composition, much as the dollar in this country is our unit of money." Whatever we may hear or observe about its form upon the page,[1] clear and pleasing to the eye, or about its general number of words, is secondary to this essential fact. In its essence the paragraph is a thing of thought. And for this reason — because thought is fluid, and not rigidly standardized, like the currency — the number of smaller units making up the unit of thought may vary, as the cents in the dollar may not. Advertising letters of today contain many effective paragraphs consisting of from ten to fifty words, instead of the safe average of "about two hundred" that textbooks recommend. A paragraph of any length whatever is a valid paragraph if it genuinely develops, with adequate fulness, a single thought, — in other words, if it has singleness and completeness of thought, or *unity*, and steady unfolding of thought, resulting in *coherence, clearness, emphasis*. Of a paragraph that is pleasing, as well as genuine, we demand in addition a certain flexibility, or *variety*.

The paragraph a unit of thought

Good use demands paragraphs that *genuinely develop, with adequate fulness, a single thought*

[1] See **122–123.**

Singleness of thought: unity

65. Any part of your paragraph is an intruder if it does not enter inevitably into your discussion as your thought moves forward to its definite end. The irrelevant portion may be a sentence or a group of sentences, or it may be a phrase or a word within the sentence; in the latter case, the disunity of the sentence mars the larger unity of the paragraph. Such departures from the single train of thought are the real cause of over-lengthy paragraphs: never the mere surpassing of an arbitrary word limit.

In the following paragraph the unjustified departures are italicized:

The reformatory offers to its members a real education. The regular school work, which occupies the morning hours, and is obligatory, embodies not only ordinary school branches, but also special work in stenography and typewriting for those who show special aptitude for such work. Lectures given every Friday evening, and occasional dramatic performances given by a dramatic club made up of the girls themselves, supplement the school work. Direct vocational training is also offered. Each girl can learn a trade whereby she may make her living after she leaves; she is taught to do gardening or laundry work or dairy work, for example. *A position is always found for her before she goes.* The physical training, which is regarded as recreation, includes drills, tennis, basket ball, and many other such games. *An honor system has been established, and with great success. The officers secure proper order by leaving it to each girl's sense of honor whether or not she shall obey rules which she recognizes as just and reasonable.*

NOTE. — The first italicized passage is wholly off the point, and could not be worked into this paragraph. The second as it stands, discussing the disciplinary policy of the officers, is likewise off the point, though it has doubtless been suggested by an idea of the education in self-

discipline that the girls gain through the honor system ; with a complete shift of emphasis, this material would be pertinent.

Such passages sometimes are to be dropped as wholly extraneous, and sometimes are to be transferred to another paragraph, if the paragraph in question is one of a series.

Irrelevant matter to be dropped or transferred

a. Wholly extraneous details are particularly frequent in paragraphs of a descriptive or narrative nature. In such cases the governing principle must be: Select not everything that could be said on the general subject "How it looked" or "What occurred," but only those details that bear out your specific purpose in describing or relating. Your selection of detail will depend upon whether you are an engineer, interested in dimensions and angle of the hillside slope, in dip and strike, or an artist, aware of the peculiar quality of the late sunlight on the jutting rocks.

Lack of unity frequent in descriptive paragraphs

66. At present there is a growing tendency to embody in a complete paragraph what is logically only part of the complete development of a single thought. This tendency manifests itself not only in newspaper items, where special conditions call for short paragraphs, and in advertising business letters, where the emphasis thus gained for each separate point explains and often justifies the practice, but also in writing pretending to more or less real literary quality, newspaper editorials of a certain type, articles, essays, and longer publications.

Completeness of thought: unity

Present tendency to distribute one thought through several paragraphs

The following passage, selected from a magazine article by a well-known author, illustrates the distribution of a thought through two or more paragraphs:

But now we are speaking figuratively; for *actually* these armies of peace have, with few exceptions, no adequate symbols of their service — no banners, uniforms, fighting hymns, rhythmic marches, pageantry of spiritual meanings made sensuous. Instead, their officers meet in drab committees, their constituents read dry pamphlets in separate homes, or in offices to the clicking of typewriters; or at best they gather chaotically together in a rented hall, listening to drab-coated talkers from a platform, or waving drab hand bills for rallying banners.

Drab — that is their disease.

Their dreams are more glorious than the dreams of war: their dreams are incarnadine, flushed with fighting angels; but they clothe them — and they *stifle* them — in drab. That is their dire heritage from the Puritan.

War's ministers are wiser. They acknowledge the eternal pagan in mankind, and utilize it. Even Cromwell marched to rhythmic drums. So — to cope with war — the organizers of peace must acknowledge man's paganism, and exalt it.

Such is the basic appeal of the Salvation Army; and such, in a subtler sense, is the secret of the extraordinary growth of the Boy Scouts organization, and of the Camp Fire Girls.

In the appeal of each, idealism adopts its special symbolism.

General Booth, Baden-Powell, Luther Gulick — each in his own way — seeks to popularize William James.

NOTE. — Analysis shows here two prevailing thoughts: the armies of peace clothe their dreams in drab; the armies of war, and similar armies, are wiser. According to this analysis, there would be in strict logic two paragraphs, the second beginning, "War's ministers are wiser." The gain of the actual arrangement is that each leap over a hurdle is startlingly clear (witness "Drab —

that is their disease"), though the observer is inevitably aware rather of hurdles surmounted than of the steady progress, hurdle by hurdle, to the goal.

Avoid unnecessary paragraph division

The method, effective as it may be in an expert's hands, is one to be avoided by inexperienced writers, who are likely to lose more in unity of effect than they gain in emphasis on particular points. The guiding principle of every writer should be: Never impress your reader so forcibly with parts of the thought that he is likely to miss their relationship and thus to be unaware of the larger whole.

Mere shortness not necessarily a defect in a paragraph

This is not to say that a single sentence may not form a paragraph; for a paragraph may consist of any one sentence that in itself sufficiently develops the writer's particular thought. "Grandfather is eighty-one years old today" is a thought completely expressed and at the same time completely developed, unless there is special occasion for adding some supplementary matter, such as comment on his hale old age, or, perhaps, the birth record from the family Bible; in writing of a certain sort, in a personal journal, for instance, the sentence could stand as a complete paragraph. However, when a sentence or a small group of sentences is a mere phase in the full development of one thought, it should not constitute a separate paragraph.

Steady development of thought: coherence, clearness

67. Often we may grant that the separate ideas of a writer have a place in the unfolding of his complete thought, and yet we may fail to perceive a genuine development: the arrangement of his sentences may be so disorderly that we feel no progress,

Orderly arrangement

Connective words

Space and emphasis proportionate to the importance of the idea

or progress that is interrupted by backward movements; if the arrangement is orderly, the connective words may be so few that we must leap from point to point, or so inaccurate that we are misled; there may be undue lingering over one idea and undue haste in disposing of another, with the result that we are aware in passing from sentence to sentence of a series of halts and breathless sallies, but no steady march forward — or aware, to change the figure, of a jerky unrolling of the scroll. A paragraph, like a scroll, should unfold smoothly, steadily, till it lies open, flat, complete to the eye.

The following paragraph taken, with some changes, from a recent newspaper article, manifests all the faults here mentioned; it is without coherence:

He was twelve years old in 1843 and was apprenticed to a grocer. The boy was in his teens during the famine of 1848; the scenes of misery left an indelible impression. When the apprenticeship was ended, he opened a place for himself in Skibbereen. Even in his boyhood and early manhood Rossa was devoted to the cause of Irish freedom. The Phœnix Society for the discussion of politics and literature was founded in Skibbereen in 1856. Rossa became a member. James Stephens reappeared in Ireland a short time later. Stephens was one of the men who figured in the rebellion of 1848 and fled to France. He began to organize the Irish Revolutionary Brotherhood, which later became the Fenian Society. Stephens went to Skibbereen and he soon had the Phœnix Society transformed into a branch. Other branches were formed throughout Ireland. It did not take long for the news to penetrate to Dublin Castle; in 1858 it was decided to end the movement, which was gaining too much headway. Arrests were made. Rossa was one of those thrown into prison. There was a trial in 1859, but a change of ministry came in and the prisoners were released. His

business was ruined and after many attempts to earn a livelihood and to work for freedom, Rossa found Ireland too uncomfortable. He came to America in 1862.

NOTE. — If this paragraph were smoothly developed, the general statement ending " Rossa was devoted to the cause of Irish freedom " would either precede or follow the details of his early work, but would not separate them ; transitional words would manifest the connection between sentences ; the name Rossa would be introduced at the outset, so that " He " and " The boy " and other substantives in the first three sentences would not seem to refer to someone different from Rossa ; such points as those relating to the history of Stephens and the general Irish movement, which are of secondary importance in this account of Rossa's early career, would be subordinated in structure and passed over more hastily.

The revised paragraph would read somewhat as follows. (The added connective expressions are italicized.)

Rossa was devoted, even in his boyhood and early manhood, to the cause of Irish freedom. He was a boy in his teens, serving as a grocer's apprentice during the famine of 1848, the misery *of which* left *on him* an indelible impression. When *some years later* he established a business for himself in Skibbereen, he became a member of the Phœnix Society, which was founded in *that town* in 1856 for the discussion of politics and literature. *With the history of this society Rossa was closely connected:* when it had been transformed under the influence of James Stephens, an active Irish patriot, into a branch of the Irish Revolutionary Brotherhood, and *thus* had incurred the hostility of the authorities, who saw that the Irish movement was making too great headway, Rossa was one of many members arrested and thrown into prison. *Though* he was tried and convicted in 1859, *he* was later released *on account of* a change in the ministry ; *yet* he was unable to remain in Ireland, *because* his business had been ruined *during these troubled years*, and *because*, when he tried to gain a livelihood and to work *further* for Irish freedom, he found Ireland too uncomfortable for him. *Consequently* in 1862 he came to America.

A capital example of the difference between the orderly, concise, and emphatic expression of an idea and a diffuse and therefore weak development of the same theme lies in the famous Ems telegram, sent to Bismarck, from King William I of Prussia, by Privy Councilor Abeken, and put into concentrated, official form by Bismarck, the Chancellor. Abeken's message read:

His Majesty the King writes me: "Count Benedetti accosted me on the promenade, in order to desire earnestly of me, in what became in the end a very importunate manner (*um auf zuletzt sehr zudringliche Art von mir zu verlangen*) that I should authorize him to telegraph at once that for all the future I bound myself never again to give my consent, in case the Hohenzollerns should renew their candidature. I refused him, in the end somewhat soberly, for one could not and ought not to undertake such arrangements *à tout jamais*. Of course I said to him that as yet I had heard nothing, and as he was earlier informed about Paris and Madrid than I, he would clearly understand that my government was again quite outside the affair (*ausser Spiel*)." As His Majesty said to Count Benedetti that he was awaiting news from the Prince, he has graciously decided, with regard to the above inappropriate request (*die obige zumutung*) and upon the report of Count Eulenberg and me, not to receive Count Benedetti again, but only to let him be informed by an aide-de-camp that His Majesty had received from the Prince the confirmation of the news which Benedetti had already had from Paris, and had nothing further to say to the ambassador. His Majesty leaves it to Your Excellency whether the new demand of Benedetti and its rejection ought not at once to be communicated as well to our ambassadors as in the press.

The following is Bismarck's version, official, precise, emphatic:

After the news of the renunciation of the Prince of Hohenzollern had been officially communicated to the French Government, the ambassador in Ems presented to the King the demand (*stellte . . . an den König die Forderung*) that His Majesty should authorize him to telegraph to Paris that the King bound himself for all the future never again to consent, if the Hohenzollerns should renew their candidature. His Majesty, however, declined to receive the French ambassador again, and informed him (*liess demselben sagen*) through the aide-de-camp on duty that His Majesty had nothing further to communicate to the ambassador.[1]

The publication of this telegram was the immediate occasion of the Franco-Prussian War of 1870.

Importance of connective words

Perhaps the most common evidence of incoherence in paragraphs is the absence or misuse of connective words — conjunctions, pronouns, and the like. Learn to make free and intelligent use of expressions like *moreover, finally, however, in spite of this, therefore, under these circumstances.*[2] Lack of parallel structure in sentences (see **55**) is also an indication of incoherent thought; express parallel ideas in parallel form.

Importance of parallel structure

Variety

68. Though not so fundamental a requirement as those already discussed, yet variety in the structure and the length of sentences and in transitional expressions is an important factor in the effectiveness

[1] The translations follow those of Jacks (*The Life of Prince Bismarck*, 1899) except for a few changes made for greater accuracy.

[2] For a useful list of transitional words with clear indication of the special connective force of each, see *English Composition in Theory and Practice*, Canby and others, Appendix I, p. 417.

of paragraphs. The first illustration under **67** offers a case in point; notice the monotonous succession of similarly built sentences or clauses beginning "He was," "The boy was," "When the apprenticeship was," "Rossa was," "There was," etc. It is only too easy to allow your sentences, one after another, to run in the same mold (almost always of this primer-like "He was . . ." type) and thus to produce paragraphs that the reader — if he cannot escape reading them — will pronounce unutterably dull.

The following example shows a dreary monotony in transitional phrases:

Now, in order that we may have a really scientific conception of the doctrine I would present to you, I must take you into an inquiry with regard to some of the simpler functions of our bodies, from which we shall rise to the simpler actions of our minds. *You all know* that the Brain, using the term in its general sense, is the organ of our Mind. That everyone will admit. We shall not go into any of the disputed questions as to the relations of Mind and Matter. . . . I merely speak of the relation of the brain to the mind, as the instrument through which the mind operates and expresses itself. *We all know* that it is in virtue of the impressions carried to the brain, through the nerves proceeding from the different sensory organs in various parts of the body, that we become conscious of what is taking place around us. And, again, that it is through the nerves proceeding from the brain that we are able to execute those movements which the Will prompts and dictates, or which arise from the play of the Emotions. But I have first to speak of a set of lower centres, those which the Will can to a certain extent control, but which are not in such immediate relation to it as the brain. *You all know* that there passes down our backbone a cord which is commonly called the "Spinal Mar-

row." *Now,* this spinal marrow gives off a pair of nerves at every division of the backbone ; and these nerves are double in function — one set of fibers conveying impressions from the surface to the spinal cord, the other motor impulses from the spinal cord to the muscles. *Now,* it used to be considered that this spinal cord . . . was a mere bundle of nerves proceeding from the brain. . . .

Now, these are examples of what we call " reflex action."

The following paragraphs, the first quoted from Viscount Bryce, the second from Stevenson, are refreshing in the easy variety of sentence forms and connective phrases :

All the world knows that they are a humorous people. They are as conspicuously the purveyors of humour to the nineteenth century as the French were the purveyors of wit to the eighteenth. Nor is this sense of the ludicrous side of things confined to a few brilliant writers. It is diffused among the whole people ; it colours their ordinary life, and gives to their talk that distinctively new flavour which a European palate enjoys. Their capacity for enjoying a joke against themselves was oddly illustrated at the outset of the Civil War, a time of stern excitement, by the merriment which arose over the hasty retreat of the Federal troops at the battle of Bull Run. When William M. Tweed was ruling and robbing New York, and had set on the bench men who were openly prostituting justice, the citizens found the situation so amusing that they almost forgot to be angry. Much of President Lincoln's popularity, and much also of the gift he showed for restoring confidence to the North at the darkest moments of the war, was due to the humorous way he used to turn things, conveying the impression of not being himself uneasy, even when he was most so.

We grown people can tell ourselves a story, give and take strokes until the bucklers ring, ride far and fast, marry, fall, and die ; all the while sitting quietly by the fire or lying prone in bed. This is exactly what a child

cannot do, or does not do, at least, when he can find anything else. He works all with lay figures and stage properties. When his story comes to the fighting, he must rise, get something by way of a sword and have a set-to with a piece of furniture, until he is out of breath. When he comes to ride with the king's pardon, he must bestride a chair, which he will so hurry and belabour and on which he will so furiously demean himself, that the messenger will arrive, if not bloody with spurring, at least fiery red with haste. If his romance involves an accident upon a cliff, he must clamber in person about the chest of drawers and fall bodily upon the carpet, before his imagination is satisfied. Lead soldiers, dolls, all toys, in short, are in the same category and answer the same end. Nothing can stagger a child's faith ; he accepts the clumsiest substitutes and can swallow the most staring incongruities. The chair he has just been besieging as a castle, or valiantly cutting to the ground as a dragon, is taken away for the accommodation of a morning visitor, and he is nothing abashed ; he can skirmish by the hour with a stationary coal-scuttle ; in the midst of the enchanted pleasance, he can see, without sensible shock, the gardener soberly digging potatoes for the day's dinner. He can make abstraction of whatever does not fit into his fable ; and he puts his eyes into his pocket, just as we hold our noses in an unsavoury lane. And so it is, that although the ways of children cross with those of their elders in a hundred places daily, they never go in the same direction nor so much as lie in the same element. So may the telegraph wires intersect the line of the high-road, or so might a landscape painter and a bagman visit the same country, and yet move in different worlds.

Paragraphing reported conversation

69. Much confusion arises in amateurish reports of interviews, conversations, and the like, from ignorance of the conventions governing the arrangement of paragraphs. Every single speech of any considerable length quoted directly in narrative, together with the narrative introducing it or ex-

plaining it, forms a separate paragraph; likewise in dialogue, every speech, long or short, with the explanatory words, constitutes a paragraph. This special rule is based on the familiar principle that a paragraph is the complete development of a *single* thought; in conversation each speech is of necessity a single unit. Mere convenience, moreover, demands separate paragraphing, so that in reading you may not become confused in ascribing speeches to the proper speakers. The following passage is incorrectly paragraphed.

Mr. Carty announced to Mr. Edison the success of the Arlington-to-Paris experiment. "It is a momentous achievement," he added. "It is wonderful! It is wonderful!" said the inventor.

Correctly paragraphed, the passage appears:

Mr. Carty announced to Mr. Edison the success of the Arlington-to-Paris experiment. "It is a momentous achievement," he added.

"It is wonderful! It is wonderful!" said the inventor.

Exercise 1

1. Does each paragraph given below express a single thought? Prove, sentence by sentence, that your answer is justified. Indicate any points at which you would recommend new paragraph division; any parts of the paragraph that you would omit.

1. Before the beginning of the present war, newspapers seemed to me the most uninteresting kind of reading material. I could never find anything I wanted. I did not know how to read the newspaper. I happened one

day to pick up the New York *Evening Post* and to read an editorial on the war. After that I seemed to find something interesting to me whenever I saw the paper, so I began to read it regularly. I heard Mr. Villard speak on the question of armament last winter. The speech increased my confidence in Mr. Villard and in the paper. I feel that the *Evening Post* really lives up to its purpose of disseminating interesting news in a manner to educate our judgment and our literary taste. I have never found any sensationalism or any bitter partisanship. Sarcasm permitted in editorials pleases when one agrees with the point of view, and can't hurt the other side if it isn't bitter. The editorials are exceedingly well written and touch many varied topics. Above all, I believe that the *Post* really prints only what it *knows*.

2. I use a definite and regular method in reading a paper. I first take a " bird's eye view " of the news, and then go back for details of whatever particularly attracted me in my first hasty survey. During my Freshman year I did not read the papers ; the many things I had to do crowded out newspaper reading. Yet I was not wise in neglecting it, for one, no matter how busy, should be well informed on current topics. It is well, too, to have some definite method of reading, like the one I have just described, for it prevents much waste of time.

3. Richard Jefferies shows us in " The Pageant of Summer " and his similar essays that Nature is his life. Of the flower-steeped atmosphere he says, " It was life to breathe it, for the air itself was life." He has lived with Nature and loved it, we can see, from his boyhood, which was spent in Wiltshire, except for a strange run-away journey to France. This journey, which he hoped would bring him to Moscow, though he had to travel all the way by foot, justified, as Richard Garnett has said, the reputation he had obtained of being " a restless, unsettled lad." In his writing he pictures the outdoor world not in elaborate language, but in simple words ; he shows it as it might appear to anyone walking near to Nature. " The long grass flowing towards the hedge has reared in a wave against it. Along the hedge it is higher and

greener, and rustles into the very bushes. There is a mark only now where the footpath was ; it passed close to the hedge, but its place is traceable only as a groove in the sorrel and seed-tops. Though it has quite filled the path, the grass there cannot send its tops so high ; it has left a winding crease." The man who writes this has read Nature like a book.

4. Hayden saw at a glance that here was the room of a lover of books. Around the four sides of the large square space before him ran low shelves, crowded with volumes, many lying horizontal on top of those that had found a more permanent lodging upright. The owner must crouch low, Hayden thought, to select the desired book, unless his eager hand reached out from one of the several commodious chairs drawn near to the book shelves. One of these stood alongside the books ranged beneath the wide southern windows. From these on a clear day like today one could see the gray-blue mountain tops, while on a cloudy day his eye would rest content on the rich crowd of evergreens that hedged him from the dusty road. The chair by the windows had been recently occupied. Open on the seat, as if but temporarily relinquished, lay a volume, evidently of verse, a pencil lying across the page ; from his station at the door Hayden could see in the wide white margins the blur of notes. From each of the deep side pockets of the chair protruded at different angles several periodicals, bound in stiff, dim blues and grays, suggestive of the scholarly review. The three pictures on the pale green-gray walls were eloquent ; the elvish countenance of Chaucer opposite the " tragic, heart-affecting face " of the great Florentine, and near the latter the merry cavalcade of the pilgrims to Canterbury. The walls were of considerable height — as high as eleven feet, Hayden found himself estimating. His eye wandered to the rugs, of a strange, grayish tone, warmed here and there by a glow of rose, and touched by the sunshine that streamed in, unhindered by any hangings ; then he looked again at the crowded shelves.

" Whose room could this be but Old Delver's ? " he exclaimed, and entered, closing the door behind him.

2. Read carefully the following explanatory note, which is prefaced to a selection from Woodrow Wilson's essay, "What is a College For?" printed in a recent collection of essays on college life.

Woodrow Wilson (1856–) was, before becoming President of the United States in 1913, a prominent educator. He had held professorships in history and politics at Bryn Mawr, Wesleyan and Princeton, and from 1907 to 1912 [correct, 1902 to 1910] was president of Princeton. The selection here given . . . gives substantially the same ideas regarding the aims of the college which were expressed toward the close of his career as a college president in several notable addresses on various academic occasions.

Should you favor inserting, between sentences two and three, the sentence, "From the presidency of Princeton he passed to the governorship of New Jersey, and thence to the presidency of the United States?" Why, or why not?

If you reject this suggested sentence, should you also strike out from the first sentence the words "before becoming President of the United States in 1913"? Why, or why not?

Exercise 2

1. Do you approve of the paragraph divisions in the following passages? State definitely why you approve or disapprove. Rewrite any passage that in your opinion should be differently paragraphed.

1. Mr. Harding's career was remarkable for an example of old-fashioned honesty. When the Civil War began, he was head of the firm of Harding and Smith, with offices at 210 Broadway, doing business in silks and dress

goods with South America and the southern states of this country. The repudiation of its claims by the southern merchants led to its bankruptcy, and it went into the hands of a receiver. A settlement was effected with the firm's creditors, and Mr. Harding went to the war with the Ninth Regiment. Later he was promoted, and at the end of the war was a Major in the Union Army.

Mr. Harding returned to this city after the war and went into business, in which he was very successful. Thirty-six years after his firm had failed and settled with its creditors, Mr. Harding personally paid off the debts of the firm, although not under any legal obligation to do so. His old creditors received checks from him, and he expressed himself as very much annoyed when the story became public.

2. You all know the seed of the coffee tree. Permit me to give its history. You will see that it is instructive.

The coffee tree came originally from Africa, where from time immemorial it has been cultivated on the declivities of Abyssinia that slope toward the Red Sea. About the fifteenth century, something like four hundred years ago, the coffee tree crossed this sea and penetrated into Arabia, where it has since been cultivated, and whence especially we get the famous coffee of Mocha.

The use of coffee spread very early and with great rapidity in the East. It penetrated Europe much more slowly, and it was first taken in France at Marseilles.

Coffee was first drunk in Paris in 1667. The seeds which furnished it were brought in small quantity by a French traveler named Thevenot. Two years afterward, in 1669, Soliman Aga, ambassador of the Sublime Porte in the time of Louis XIV, induced the courtesans of that great king to taste it, and they found it very agreeable. However, its use did not spread for a long time. It was not until the eighteenth century that it began to be generally used.

You see that coffee has not been very long in circulation. In fact, it is scarcely a century and a half since it became an article of general consumption by the people of Europe.

3. When I read the story, "A Hero of the Sea," I felt very much at sea myself. I knew that two ships had

met with disaster, and that rescue had been effected through the coolness of a wireless operator ; but two very important questions were left in my mind unanswered — " Where ? " and " How ? " The details in the story are very badly arranged. The first paragraph " discloses " a hero and a collision ; then in the next we are told uninteresting details concerning the outcome of the whole story. The next paragraph gives further unimportant detail which, if included at all, should be at the very end.

In the next paragraph we hear a little more about the hero, though we do not yet know exactly what he is getting credit for.

We come upon the chief circumstances, vaguely told, in the last paragraph ; there is one poor attempt at vividness in the picture of " Death riding the gale."

2. In the following advertisement what has the advertiser gained by the paragraphing he has adopted? — Rewrite the passage, supposing you are informally explaining the system to an interested friend, whose patronage you are not seeking to obtain; use all the material except the last paragraph. What difference is there in your method of paragraphing?

If you should suddenly become totally and permanently disabled, having to abandon your work, you would of course face a very serious problem.

We have a new plan which is specifically designed to meet your need in the event of such a misfortune.

In plain English, the Company will *guarantee* to pay you an income for 8 years in case you lose your earning power through total and permanent disablement from injury or disease, either mental or physical.

If you are not disabled, as specified above, when the contract matures, the Company *guarantees* to pay you an annual or monthly income for *your entire lifetime*, no further payments due from you.

This is the greatest contract that has ever been offered. It is *guaranteed* by a company of $31,000,000 assets, and supervised by the governments of 41 different states. Great numbers of your profession throughout the country have already taken advantage of this new contract. You will be interested. Just fill out the enclosed card and mail to me, and I will furnish full particulars without any obligation on your part. I will call by appointment only.

Exercise 3

1. In each of the following paragraphs, what are the causes of incoherence?

1. The Jews in thirteenth century England lived as a people apart, an ostracized group. The homes of the Jews were in separate portions of the cities, known as "Jewries." Jews received scorn, and in moments of passion, savage maltreatment from the Christians; they crucified the Savior, they sacrificed Christian lads, like little Hugh of Lincoln, according to current stories ardently believed, and they were lending money at usurious rates of interest, thus gaining wealth at the expense of unfortunate Christians pressed by taxes or other insistent debts. Able, even astute, financially and intellectually, a potential good in the community, and personally without responsibility for the crime they committed when they crucified the Christ, still, because of blind prejudice, they were leading the lives of despised and persecuted aliens.

2. Color in nature affects me more than anything else. In the spring the different greens of the new-sprung grass win my attention. On a clear day, looking down from a hilltop to the trees and fields below, you see many shades of green, alive and fresh in contrast to the bare, wintry trees not yet in leaf. In the autumn the trees take on coloring very different, but as lovely, — brown, yellow, scarlet. The colors between mid-November and mid-December are least attractive to me; the earth is barren, the water reflects gray skies. When winter comes in full blast, we have the white sparkle of snow. From year-in to year-out it is color in the outdoor world that attracts my eye.

2. In the first paragraph under Exercise **1**, 1, indicate every point at which the transition is not smooth. Note in each case the method you would adopt to produce easy transition.

3. Follow the directions given in the preceding exercise, in this instance for the third item under Exercise **2**, 1.

4. Rewrite the following paragraph, inserting connective words (conjunctions, demonstratives, etc.), also phrases or sentences, whenever they can be used to make clearer the development of the thought.

The Gary school system is being much discussed now in New York City. The system bids fair to be adopted for trial. Many excellences and some defects are being pointed out. Children who are now on the streets during most of the day, because the schools are conducted on a part time basis, would under the Gary plan be kept off the streets. Regular class work would be supplemented by shop work, such as carpentering, by time spent in the auditorium in hearing music or lectures, in seeing, and at times explaining to the other students, instructive moving pictures, and by time spent in outdoor, only slightly supervised, play. When one class would be in the class room, another would be in the shop, another in the assembly hall, another at recreation. By carefully arranged schedules all the children could be kept at one or another kind of educational pursuit — study, work, or play — for the greater part of the day. Some parents have objected that the energies of the children seem to be dissipated. When children are transferred from a school employing the Gary system to an ordinary school, they must be set back a grade or more to master the rudiments of various subjects. There is no reason why the school work should be less thorough under the Gary system. As many hours are provided for study of the school branches and for recitation as are used in ordinary city-school systems.

5. Study the two paragraphs in Exercise 8, 2, under *Words* (p. 59). Is the number of words used proper to the expression of the underlying thought? If you think so, prove your answer; if you think not, rewrite the paragraphs, using the requisite number of words.

6. Study carefully the following paragraph, and rewrite it to make it coherent; whenever possible, achieve greater clearness and smoothness of development by a reconstruction of the sentences, i.e., a different arrangement of the sentence members.

That we cannot depend on volunteer service is the belief of many military men ; yet the success of the proposed reserve plan depends on the willingness of young Americans to volunteer. Many civilians and many newspapers have accepted and expressed this belief of the military men. The Swiss military system, founded on compulsory service, and initiating training during the boy's school years, has been held up as an example for Americans by one important paper, for instance. Our Federal Government could never establish such a system. The schools are not in its control ; the sovereignty of the states it cannot ignore. But if the states are willing to do their share toward the training of schoolboys, — and there is a general feeling that soldiering should be one of the studies of children, — the Government can rely on something like that Swiss system, based, however, on voluntary and not compulsory service. If the widespread understanding of the needs of the situation and the interest in soldiering instilled by the school work do not result in a sufficiently large volunteer force, then the proposed plan will fail ; but we confidently predict that it will not fail.

7. Criticize in the following paragraph the order of the material, and the relative space and

emphasis given to the points. Rewrite the paragraph, developing the thought more evenly.

His was a face that I shall never forget. It was long, narrow, irregular. In his bearing he seemed the soldier, not the scholar. He stood well over six feet tall, quite erect, his head held back. I had to look up from my five feet six to see the keen eyes under the sparse gray brows, the thin line of his lips, the high uneven cheek bones, and the irregular features over which the pallid skin stretched taut, the surprisingly thick crown of disordered gray-white hair. There was no hint of comeliness in the uneven, elongated frame of his face. But what significance ! The room that confined us was crowded with elegant, dainty-hued furnishings and hangings ; it was like the sitting room of a rich debutante, I thought, as I looked round it. What a strange setting for that long, grim, spare face !

8. What is the source of incoherence in the following advertisements? Rewrite.

Laboratory workers of the highest reputation use and recommend this microscope for the following reasons. First, they are durable, practically indestructible ; second, ease of manipulation ; in the third place, the mechanical construction is unique ; fourth, highly efficient and uniform in optical performance. They add that this microscope is unusually beautiful in design. These are some of the superior qualities of this microscope.

Write for our catalogue if you are interested in any one of our four popular body styles, specially designed for use

As a general year 'round car.
In touring.
For professional and business use.
For those wanting a racy but refined car.

Exercise 4

1. Analyze the following paragraph as here indicated:

a. Number the sentences consecutively.

b. Write down in order the kind of sentence in each case (simple, compound, or complex); the coördinating conjunction used, if the sentence is compound; the subject substantive and predicate verb in each sentence or principal clause; note where in the sentence or clause the subject substantive stands.

c. What is your judgment as to the variety of sentence structure and vocabulary in the paragraph?

How and why I read the newspaper I do is a rather hard question to answer. I read the *New York Times* and I believe, if I were asked "Why?" I should say upon impulse, "Habit." My family takes the *New York Times* and so, when I came to order a newspaper for myself, I did not think of subscribing to any other. I know it is not a sensational paper and everyone always speaks of it as "authentic." I have always felt that there was something refined and substantial about it. I know that the editorials are sometimes prejudiced, and I have heard people criticize them very severely, but I have always retained great confidence in the general editorial point of view of the *Times*. I heard a senior say only the other day that the editorials of the *Journal* are very good, that they are neutral and unprejudiced, and I have thought that I would find a copy and try to compare its editorials with those of the *Times*.

How I read the paper is also difficult to state; my procedure is very different at different times. Sometimes I read only the headlines and sometimes I read a large part of the front page. I always try to glance through the

editorials when I have time, but I do not find time as often as I feel that I should. I am hoping to learn how to read the newspaper more intelligently and with greater regularity.

2. Rewrite the preceding paragraph, relieving it in every way possible of monotony.

3. What changes would you suggest in Exercise 1, 1, to make for variety of effect without sacrifice of clearness or smoothness?

Exercise 5

Rewrite the following passages, paragraphing correctly.

1. Mr. Carter testified that only a small part of the Adirondack property is now in operation and that his company has 9000 acres of idle ore lands in Cuba. "We can supply the present demand from the Mineville, N. Y., district alone," he said. "What of the two blast furnaces your company contemplates building at Perth Amboy?" he was asked. He replied that they are to take care of the excess products of the mines in Cuba and the Adirondacks. "The company also expects to use some ore from the Lake Superior District," he added. "On the completion of the large canal across the state of New York," he continued, "it will be cheaper to deliver Lake Superior ore in New York than in Pittsburgh."

2. She first broke the silence by asking after Madeline. "Busy with some important sewing, — curtains, I fancy. She is becoming an inveterate housekeeper," Philip said. "I am glad, for her sake, that she is here. And it must be very pleasant for you, after all your wanderings." "I must look on it, I suppose," Philip answered, "as the only kind of home I shall ever have, — while it lasts. But Madeline's life must not be mutilated because mine happens to be." The warm color left Mrs. Hopeton's face. She strove to make her voice cold and steady, as she said:

"I am sorry to see you growing so bitter, Mr. Held." "I don't think it is my proper nature, Mrs. Hopeton. But you startled me out of a retrospect, which had exhausted my capacity for self-reproach, and was about to become self-cursing. There is no bitterness quite equal to that of seeing how weakly one has thrown away an irrecoverable fortune." She stood before him, silent and disturbed. It was impossible not to understand, yet it seemed equally impossible to answer him. . . . She moved a step, as if to end the interview. "Only one moment, Mrs. Hopeton — Emily!" Philip cried.

NOTE. — Be certain that you are ascribing each speech to the proper speaker.

Exercise 6

1. Point out in detail the causes of weakness in the following paragraphs; rewrite them so as to render them effective.

1. Mr. President, there is nothing now that any sect or cult of people want to accomplish that they are in doubt about the power of Congress to respond to but what[1] they say "You can do it under the commerce clause." You cannot say to the people of the States, "You shall do this." Nobody claims we could say that no state shall allow a boy under sixteen years old to work, but they do sometimes get up a theory that it is bad for a boy under sixteen years old to work, and that is the sentiment, and if you pronounce that it is bad for him to work, and it would be in the interest of the public welfare that he did not work, then you say anybody who allows him to work shall be prohibited from sending anything into interstate commerce, and we are all the time being urged to do indirectly what everybody admits we cannot do directly.

NOTE. — Do not fail to criticize details of phraseology and of sentence structure.

[1] See **But what** in list of misused words, **6.**

2. I have had on this calendar for a long time two cases, undisputed as to the facts, that have been thoroughly investigated by the military authorities. Medical officers of the Army examined and for a while treated the victims of this accident, due to the carelessness of military servants of the Government. Three women, residing in the city of San Antonio, were driving to their residences in the afternoon along a quiet street when a battery of artillery swung into it from another street and ran over their carriage and destroyed it and very seriously hurt the occupants, Mrs. A—— and Mrs. B—— and her daughter.

They expended a good deal of money for medical treatment. They were taken to the military hospital at first and subsequently treated in other hospitals. One of them, Mrs. A——, has spent more than $3,000 in an effort to get over the injury caused by this battery of the United States Army. She was treated in San Antonio, and then went to Chicago, where she was treated, I think, by Dr. C—— in a hospital in that city. My recollection is that she has spent between $3,000 and $3,500. The woman is injured for life. She goes on crutches. One of her legs is practically destroyed. She will never be well. I have seen her, and while I pretend to no knowledge of medicine, and while I have great faith in the skill of physicians, almost to reconstruct the human body nowadays, I can see, as anyone can, that it will never be possible for this woman to recover from the injury done to her. She still suffers from it and still undergoes treatment. The committee was impressed with the justice of the claim and think that she should be compensated for the carriage which was run over and destroyed by the battery and that they should be compensated moderately for the personal injuries, and that the amount they have paid out for medical attention be repaid to them. I have endeavored to keep an eye on this bill, and have been on hand usually when such matters were under consideration, trying to press the claim of my constituents. I see the House today is passing a few bills to compensate people for personal injuries. I have failed to see why a man who was hurt by the fall of a file case somewhere in Boston is any more entitled to consideration than are

these unfortunate women. The only difference I can see is that the man seems to have been in the service of the Government at the time. But that makes the injury no greater. It makes the loss of time and expense no greater. This poor woman has been ruined. She had a business which she was conducting, which she had to give up. Her carriage was destroyed. Her horse was so badly crippled that it had to be killed. The other woman and her daughter were less seriously injured.

2. Criticize the following paragraphs as to *singleness* and *completeness* of thought, *smooth development*, and *variety*. In each instance, either prove the paragraph to be satisfactory, or rewrite, making every improvement that you can. (Do not fail to correct minor inaccuracies of expression if you find any.)

1. The present system of fire precaution is not wholly adequate. Not enough is done in the way of prevention of fire. The abolition of alcohol lamps in the students' rooms is discussed but not effected. Solid alcohol is generally used, but without complete safety, in spite of great cautiousness. The curtains and draperies, though tacked down, too often are not so securely fastened that they cannot blow into the open flame. The new regulations for fire drill seem fully satisfactory. The fire captains now call the roll at the top of the staircases instead of waiting till they are outside, as formerly, and then having to rush back for the missing. Absolute quiet, insured by fines, is the rule, even after the students get outside, and each corridor has a certain staircase appointed for exit, down which only single files can pass, so all confusion is avoided. The former rule was to turn on all lights as soon as the gong rang, but the suddenly increased demand on power in the small hours of the morning, when less power was being generated, burned out so many fuses last year that the rule has been reversed. Every window must be shut immediately to avoid draughts and everyone must have

warm wraps ready to slip on. Since every person in a hall — officer, student, or employee — is compelled to turn out for drill, and no excuse is accepted, even of illness, the system seems entirely satisfactory and has so far been successful. Though everything in the way of drill, therefore, has been accomplished, yet the problem of fire prevention is far from settled. Even the solid alcohol, heralded as absolutely nonexplosive, proves to be decidedly treacherous. The only feasible steps seem, one and all, to involve the complete abolition of the use of alcohol lamps in students' rooms.

2. Mr. Kipling finds fault with the slang of America. There is no doubt a great deal of slang in America. But the one virtue of American slang is that it is an effort to find new and expressive phrases for new objects and conditions of life. Our slang here [in England] is usually employed to give a second and what is supposed to be a comical name to something which has already a well established and recognized name of its own. This fact was pointed out and well illustrated by Bret Harte years and years ago. We have a good deal of slang in England, and judging by Mr. Kipling's novels, they must have an immense amount of slang in the English society of Indian regions. Mr. Kipling's latest novel, "The Light That Failed," is a story of England, and is practically all slang. The men and women never for one sentence, never by any chance, talk pure English. The whole conversation is a mere jargon which to a foreigner not well skilled in the English vernacular of daily life would be a hopeless puzzle out of which no dictionary could help him. It is all very clever, very spirited, very much like the real English life of the class the story describes and of today, and in its very realism an American might find the easiest answer to Mr. Kipling's charge about the overdoing of slang in the United States.

PART II

GOOD USE IN THE WRITTEN OR PRINTED FORM

CHAPTER FOUR

PUNCTUATION

Punctuation a means of expression

70. PUNCTUATION is a means of expression, a way of conveying thought. Even if you are inclined at first to question this statement, you will readily admit that punctuation marks omitted or misused can effectively conceal sense. None of us forgets what a muddle good Peter Quince made of his prologue because he "knew not the stop":

> If we offend, it is with our good will.
> That you should think, we come not to offend,
> But with good will. To show our simple skill,
> That is the true beginning of our end.

A wayfarer and a tavern keeper once fell to blows, tradition tells us, because each interpreted to his own liking the legend that swung, unpointed, above the door:

> What do you think
> Here for no gold you'll find
> Victuals and drink [1]

[1] The traveler read, "What do you think! Here for no gold you'll find victuals and drink!" But the host's version ran thus: "What! Do you think here for no gold you'll find victuals and drink?"

Indeed, it might seem that the marks bear some ancient grudge against mine host, for it was an innkeeper who fell victim to the semicolon in the so-called "semicolon law" of Massachusetts. The law, as originally passed in 1875, read as follows:

> That no sale of spirituous or intoxicating liquor shall be made between the hours of twelve at night and six in the morning, nor during the Lord's day, except that if the licensee is also licensed as an innholder, he may supply such liquor to guests who have resorted to his house for food or lodging.

In amending the act, ten years later, to read "eleven" instead of "twelve," the legislators allowed a semicolon to slip in after "morning." In 1900 a resident of Cambridge was charged with selling liquor between eleven and six, and was brought before the courts, although he held a license as an innholder. The case was carried to the Supreme Court of the Commonwealth, which held that the exception in the law applied only to Sunday sales, and not to the sales between the hours of eleven and six, as the defendant contended. The semicolon, in other words, separated the exception from the first part of the statute — with a result contrary to the plain intention of the law. Accordingly, a year later the Commission on Consolidating the Public Statutes had the law repealed; and soon a new law was passed in its place.[1]

If such is the power of a semicolon, you will do well

[1] This account of the "semicolon law" was obtained through the courtesy of Mr. F. A. Nichols, Political Editor of the Boston *Transcript*.

to pay it some heed. And if you do observe the work done by it and the other marks, you will see that as a rule they do just what the semicolon in the law did — they indicate that the expression before the mark separates itself more or less from the words that follow; usually, too, they furnish you a clue as to whether the expressions are coördinate in importance, or one subordinate to the other. To make good use of punctuation marks, then, you need a clear understanding of the structure of your sentences, or — to put it more simply — a clear idea of what you are saying.

The following sections present, after a statement of some general principles, a set of rules for punctuation at the end of sentences and within them, and a tabulation of the uses determined by the conventions of printing. The directions for punctuating sentences, if intelligently studied and adapted in every instance to the writer's individual problem, should insure intelligent punctuating, though they lay no claim to recording all acceptable methods. It must be clearly understood that they rather furnish a guide for procedure in typical situations than prescribe rules to be mechanically followed in special cases.

NOTE. — For punctuation in business letters, see **151, 161,** and the letter forms in **149–160.**

Overuse of commas and other marks

71. Use only such marks of punctuation as (1) accurately express relations of thought or (2) conform to conventions of printing in certain well-defined cases.

The prevailing error is to punctuate with meaningless liberality — to "sprinkle commas" in the unreasoning fear of not having used enough; unintelligent omissions are also common.

No mark at the beginning of a line

72. Do not put punctuation marks at the beginning of a line. Punctuation marks always affect the preceding part of the sentence, not the following words.

The marks of punctuation

73. The marks of punctuation are the following:

period	.	dash	—
interrogation point (question mark)	?	dots	. . .
		apostrophe	'
exclamation point	!	quotation marks	" " " "
comma	,	parentheses	( )
semicolon	;	brackets	[ ]
colon	:		

Punctuation at the End of the Sentence

Use of the marks

74. At the end of every sentence use either a period, an interrogation point, or an exclamation point. ("Every sentence" includes every single word or phrase used independently as an undeveloped sentence.)

At the end of every sentence

Period

1. At the close of a declarative, nonexclamatory sentence use the period.

> The letter is lost. He is not here. Give me two pounds, please. Yes.

Interrogation point

2. At the close of an interrogative, nonexclamatory sentence use the interrogation point.

> Do you approve? Is she pretty? You mean that he is dishonest? Yes? Why?

NOTE. — Use the interrogation point when a declarative sentence ends with a directly quoted question.

She wondered, "Will he come?" (BUT: She wonders whether he will come.)

3. At the close of an exclamatory sentence use the exclamation point. **Exclamation point**

The letter is lost! Is not this war terrible! Answer me instantly! Alas! Oh for a friend!

NOTE. — Use the exclamation point only when the expression is genuinely exclamatory, i.e., when the feeling is strong. The mark is overused.

Punctuation within the Sentence

75. Avoid separating elements that are logically inseparable. **Within the sentence**

1. In general, avoid using the comma to separate subject and predicate, or predicate nominative and linking verb. **No mark to be used between inseparable elements**

The following sentences are correctly punctuated:

Formerly the best oysters used in the canning houses of Mississippi came from Louisiana. [NOT: Formerly the best oysters used in the canning houses of Mississippi, came from Louisiana.] **Subject and predicate verb as a rule not to be separated**

That he is honest is certain. [NOT: That he is honest, is certain.]

The reason is that he is ill. [NOT: The reason is, that he is ill.]

EXCEPTION. — This direction does not always hold for unusually complicated sentences.

Whether he is a big enough man to attack this disease, which is threatening the very life of the nation, and to bring to the army the service of the best brains at his command, is the question that men are asking.

Neither does it hold for sentences of this special type: Was he sincere? That he *was*, *was* then my belief. My question *was*, *Was* he sincere? (See **81**.)

Essential subordinate elements not to be separated from principal elements

2. In general, avoid using the comma to separate two elements, one of which is subordinate *and essential* to the meaning of the other.

The following sentences are correct; in examples followed by a correct contrasted form the italicized element in the first form is essential to the modified element, whereas in the contrasted form it is non-essential:

I say always and in all circumstances *what I mean.* [NEVER: I say always and in all circumstances, *what I mean.* "What I mean" is direct object of "say."]

The fact *that he came* is significant. [CONTRAST (correct): The fact, *that he came,* is significant.]

Peter *the Hermit* was a leader of the crusade. [CONTRAST (correct): Peter, *the hermit I spoke of,* was a leader of the crusade.]

We need hearts *strong and bold.* [CONTRAST (correct): We need men, *strong and bold.*]

Essential (restrictive) relative clauses not to be separated from principal clauses by commas

We have not punished those *who committed the crime.* [CONTRAST (correct): We have not punished these men, *who committed the crime.*]

NOTE. — Error is constant in sentences like the last. Relative clauses essential to the meaning of the word modified (in other words, restrictive clauses) are not separated by a comma from that word; relative clauses not essential to the meaning of the word modified (i.e., nonrestrictive clauses) are separated by a comma from that word. (See **77**, *2.*)

3. In general, avoid the comma between closely adherent elements, whether coördinate, or principal and subordinate.

In the following, both forms are allowable, but different in effect:

Closely adherent elements not to be separated

My country calls and I answer. [CONTRAST : My country calls, and I answer.]
I wish to do it and I will do it. [CONTRAST : I wish to do it, and I will do it.]
He comes whenever I call. [CONTRAST : Whenever I call, he comes.]
I shall go if you do. [CONTRAST : I shall go, if you do.]
He does the work because he enjoys it. [CONTRAST : Because he enjoys the work, he does it.]

When separation of sentence elements is desirable, observe the following directions:

Marks to separate separable elements

76. To separate coördinate clauses use the comma as a rule, less often the semicolon or colon.

Coördinate clauses

1. If the separation between the clauses is slight, use the comma. (This covers most cases where the clauses are simple in form and connected by *and* or *but*.)

Comma usual

Martin frowned, and his friend turned away.
I shall go, but I do not wish to.
In many cases the observers have used different terms to describe a single specimen, and therefore they have merely confused those whom they would inform.

2. If the separation between the clauses is marked, use the semicolon. (This rule holds especially in the absence of a conjunction; or when the conjunction is one of the following: *accordingly, also, however, moreover, so, therefore, thus*, etc.; or when the clauses are themselves full of minor divisions.)

Semicolon if separation is marked

Some exercise is good for you ; too much is injurious
He will arrive at eight ; and at eight I leave.
I can't come ; so that's settled.
Many men, he predicts, will vote for Baker, the Republican, and many, too, for Cole, the Socialist ; but Crane, the Democrat, he thinks will be elected.

Colon if separation is great and first clause anticipates second

3. If the separation between the clauses is unusually marked and the first clause in some way definitely looks forward to the second, use the colon.

We note a remarkable coincidence : the month of April marked the opening of our Revolution, our Civil War, our Spanish war, and our war of 1917.
There were two reasons for my tardiness : I had, carelessly, stayed till the last moment at my desk ; then, on the way to the station, my car had been delayed at a blocked crossing.
They maintain that the measure is unfair, both to employers and to employees ; that in the end, however auspicious might be the beginning, it will prove impracticable ; above all, that it is illegal : in brief, they consider it a desperate expedient.

" Comma error ": comma misused where separation is marked

NOTE. — The unreasoning use of the comma for the semicolon or colon (or period) between coördinate clauses distinctly separate in thought is a serious and widespread error. The following sentences are correct :

The faults in your work are serious ; I am worried about them. [NOT : The faults in your work are serious, I am worried about them.]
He made an excellent mayor. We have had none better. [NOT : He made an excellent mayor, we have had none better.]
I suddenly formed a resolution that was to prove momentous : I resolved to speak my mind. [NOT : I suddenly formed a resolution that was to prove momentous, I resolved to speak my mind.]

77. To separate the principal from the subordinate clause of a complex sentence, as a rule use the comma, rarely the semicolon. **Principal and subordinate clauses**

1. If the subordinate clause is adverbial, use the comma. **Comma usual**

If you agree, I do.
Though you object, I must carry out my plan.
I must go on, even though you object, with my plan.
We left hurriedly, because a strike threatened. [CONTRAST (also correct): We left hurriedly because a strike threatened. (See **75**, *3*.)]

NOTE 1. — The semicolon is occasionally used, but with rather loose, informal effect: **Semicolon rare**

No, I didn't see him when he came; because he didn't come!

NOTE 2. — When a clause is introduced by *for*, be particularly careful to separate it from the preceding words in order to prevent the reader from interpreting *for* as a preposition. **Punctuation especially important with *for*-clause**

Urge him to stand firm, for peace depends on it. [NOT: Urge him to stand firm for peace depends on it.]

2. If the subordinate clause is a relative clause, nonessential (i.e., nonrestrictive), use the comma. (See **75**, *2*, NOTE.) **Comma essential with descriptive (nonrestrictive) relative clause**

The failure to use the comma is a positive error, often misleading the reader.

He approached the man, who was sprawling on the bench. [CONTRAST (also correct): He approached the man who was sprawling on the bench.] — In the first form "the man" is already identified for the reader, and the *who*-clause, nonessential, adds descriptive detail; in the second, the *who*-clause is essential to identify the man.
He lent me the book, which I couldn't afford to buy.

[CONTRAST (also correct) : He lent me the book which (that) I couldn't afford to buy.]

Children, who are credulous, might believe it. [CONTRAST (also correct) : Children who are credulous might believe it.]

Someone has said that the first American was Abraham Lincoln, who was president during the Civil War. [INCORRECT : Someone has said that the first American was Abraham Lincoln who was president during the Civil War.] — The incorrect form implies that there were two or more Lincolns, with the result that further identification is necessary.

Coördinate series

78. To separate the members of a coördinate series, ordinarily use the comma, less often the semicolon.

Comma usual

1. If the members are not connected by *and*, *or*, or *nor*, a mark follows each member but the last.

Series like *a, b, c, d*

1. It was a cold, blustery, rainy day.
2. Freshmen, Sophomores, even upper classmen stood somewhat in awe of him.
3. A week, a day, an hour, that is all I ask!
4. His friends ; his enemies ; men who had opposed him steadily ; men who had not even known him by sight ; all did him honor.
5. For good or for ill, for fair fortune or for foul, for success or for disaster, I am dedicated to this work.

NOTE 1. — Occasionally the punctuation mark is used even if the members are connected by conjunctions, each member thus receiving additional emphasis.

The day is cold, and blustery, and gray with rain. [CONTRAST (more usual) : The day is cold and blustery and gray with rain.]

NOTE 2. — No punctuation mark should separate the last member of a series from the following sentence element unless it stands at that point for some other purpose. See sentences 1 and 2 (" rainy day," not " rainy, day," etc.); in 3 and 4, the members of the series are in apposition

(see **79**, *1*) to "all," or "that," which gathers them up and serves as subject. — When a point, very occasionally, does merely mark the end of a series, it serves especially to arrest attention on the last member:

> It was a cold, rainy, blustery, thoroughly unbearable, day.

NOTE 3. — When in an adjective series the last adjective adheres more closely than the others to the following substantive, no punctuation separates the preceding adjective from it:

> She was a pretty, unassuming little woman. [CONTRAST (also correct): She was a pretty, unassuming, little woman.] In the first form "little" is not coördinate in rank with "pretty" and "unassuming"; it is much more closely adherent to "woman."

Semicolon less usual

NOTE 4. — Semicolons are used to lend additional emphasis to each member of the series, particularly if the members are complex enough to be especially marked as units; this occurs often when they are clauses:

> He warned the officers that they would better turn back; he declared that they would advance at their peril; he suggested that they would do well not to argue.
>
> They belong to the days when books were few and expensive; when few persons could acquire a library of their own; . . . when one of the joys of learning was the consciousness of possessing secrets not known to other men. (A. C. BENSON.)
>
> The doctor said that there had been no hope, unless by a miracle, for his recovery; that the chances, instead of favoring him, had worked against him; and that yet, — was it the miracle? — he had recovered.

Series like *a, b, and (or) c*

2. If the last two members are connected by *and* or *or*, a comma (or semicolon) separates the conjunction from the member immediately preceding.

This measure did not prevent litigation, fraud, or loss to the state.

Not scoldings, threats, (n)or abuse moved him. [On *nor* here see **48**, *1*, NOTE.]

He is an old, tested, and faithful friend. [CONTRAST (also correct) : He is a dear, old, *tried and true* friend.] In the second form, the final member is the compound "tried and true."

NOTE. — Some authorities would make it a rule that no comma precede the *and* in such series as these; but the presence or absence of the comma depends on the sense of the individual sentence. Usually the comma is desirable, because it allows full emphasis on the preceding word and prevents the impression that the last two members, joined by *and*, are more closely connected than the other members of the series; note the unsatisfactory effect of the first example changed to read: "This measure did not prevent litigation, fraud or loss to the state." Sometimes, however, the comma would be untrue to the intention, as after "tried" in the last example, second form.

Contrasted elements: comma

3. If the coördinate elements are contrasted, they may be separated by commas.

Not words, but deeds are needed now.

Give me what I want, or give me nothing.

Words and phrases loosely attached

79. To separate from the rest of the sentence any subordinate, or at least secondary, expression, more or less detachable, use the comma ordinarily, less commonly some other mark, as indicated:

Appositional: comma

1. With an appositional expression, use the comma.

My companion, the man of the crooked scar, was grimly silent.

NOTE. — Contrast "Peter the Hermit." (See **75**, *2.*)

2. With a participial phrase, nonessential or descriptive (nonrestrictive) in function, use the comma; this rule includes the nominative absolute phrase. **Participial: comma**

Coming to console me, she cast me into deeper gloom.
This man, heralded as an expert, is really pitiful in his ignorance.
The band made little progress, the children being utterly weary and footsore. [Nominative absolute.]

3. With a nominative of address, use the comma as a rule, but the exclamation point to express strong feeling. **Nominative of address: comma or exclamation point**

I say, Dom Nicolas, it will be cold tonight on the St. Denis road. (STEVENSON.)
Whoever you are, come here!
Boy! Boy! That house is on fire!

4. With an adverbial expression loosely attached or inserted, use the comma. **Adverbial phrase: comma**

Now, his motive is only too easy to find. [CONTRAST (also correct): Now his motive is only too easy to find.]
For some inexplicable reason, I distrusted him. [CONTRAST (also correct): For some inexplicable reason I distrusted him.]
To be candid, I disapprove.
Stanton, however, was furious.

5. With inserted, comparatively independent elements, use commas, less often dashes, parentheses, brackets. (This special rule covers many cases of inset elements, already illustrated under *1–4*, preceding, and in **77.**) **Inserted elements: comma usual**

1. I tried, when he asked me, to encourage him.
2. The club, which is not very exclusive, has rejected his name.
3. The later news, it was observed, was not reassuring.
4. There were formerly two capitals — Hartford and New Haven — in Connecticut.
5. And then, sure enough, the Black Captain strode by. (Mrs. Ewing.)
6. Let me tell you, sir — *he* never will — that if he could have driven me from him, he would be lying yonder at this moment, and I should be safe and sound. (Mrs. Ewing.)
7. The little Miss Jessamine (but she was Mrs. Black-Captain now) lived very economically. (Mrs. Ewing.)

Parentheses, dashes, brackets less usual

Note 1. — This use of the parenthesis, formerly frequent, is now reserved for cases where the interpolation is decided and yet not very abrupt. Dashes are as a rule used for more abrupt insertions. Careless writers tend to use them too freely. Brackets are reserved for the most extraneous matter — interpolations into quoted or cited matter. (See **94**.)

Comma and dash

Note 2. — The comma may be used with the dash at any point where it would be used were there no dash :

> I assure you, on my honor, — and in my honor I hope you believe, — that I have not spoken to him.

The tendency grows, however, to use the dash without the comma, as in sentence 6. — When possible, avoid the comma combined with the parenthesis.

Relative position of parenthesis and any other mark at end of sentence

Note 3. — When a parenthesis ends a sentence, the closing punctuation mark is outside the parenthesis, unless the pair of parentheses encloses a whole parenthetical sentence :

> He then discusses the causes of the war (referring, of course, to the Civil War).
>
> He's doing all he can against us (bad luck to him !).
>
> Cæsar died in this same year (43 B.C.).

He was a reformer for the rest of his life. (For an account of his romantic career, see the biographical sketch.)

Careless omission of mark at end of an inserted expression

NOTE 4. — To omit the mark of punctuation at the end of an inserted expression, when one has been used before it to separate it from the preceding context, is a careless and serious error. The comma is very often omitted in this way.

Such bland impudence, however you may feel about it, certainly infuriates me ! [INCORRECT : Such bland impudence, however you may feel about it certainly infuriates me !]

One man may be given a canoe, which is a great prize, or a slave. [INCORRECT : One man may be given a canoe, which is a great prize or a slave.]

Indianapolis, the capital city, was chartered in 1847. [INCORRECT : Indianapolis, the capital city was chartered in 1847.]

His reasons, moreover, were compelling. [INCORRECT: His reasons, moreover were compelling.]

Elements transposed: comma

80. To separate from the context and thus further to emphasize words transferred from their natural position, use the comma.

I beheld, glowering savagely in my direction, a dark-faced fellow. [CONTRAST (possible) : I beheld glowering savagely in my direction a dark-faced fellow.]

Under the very roof of your friend, you betrayed him. [CONTRAST (also correct) : Under the very roof of your friend you betrayed him.]

Elements confusing unless separated: comma

81. To separate expressions otherwise likely to be temporarily confusing, use the comma.

When I was about to resume, the harangue began anew. [MISLEADING : When I was about to resume the harangue began anew.]

At the time, I mentioned it to him. [MISLEADING : At the time I mentioned it to him.]

They should have a nurse, for their mother is too busy as it is. [MISLEADING : They should have a nurse for their mother is too busy as it is.] (See **77**, *1*, NOTE 2.)

Whatever was, was for the good. [CONFUSING : Whatever was was for the good.] (See **75**, *1*, EXCEPTION.) — Avoid such constructions as a rule.

At the point of an omission: comma

82. To separate one element from another because of the omission of some naturally intervening element, use the comma.

With Priscilla she is a hoyden ; with Bab, demurity itself.

In addresses and dates

Purdue University is at Lafayette, Indiana.

The last performance in the old opera house occurred on March 27, 1914.

NOTE. — Dots (or stars) are used to indicate omission from a quoted text. (See **92**.)

Marking an abrupt change: dash or dots

83. To separate elements between which there occurs an abrupt break or change or momentous turn in the thought, ordinarily use the dash.

" The love of God — "
And with that Jackanapes died. (Mrs. EWING.)

I've nothing to say except — Oh, what is the use ?

What is left for me now is — open disgrace !

NOTE. — In literary use, dots frequently indicate the breaking off of the author's thought into suggestive reverie too vague for exact expression :

Slippers . . .
I used to meditate it for hours. (E. V. LUCAS.)

84. To separate a short direct quotation from the rest of the sentence, ordinarily use a comma.

Direct quotation: comma usual

After a silence he said, "I'll do it."
"You take a great liberty," I protested.
Very crisply she answered, "I do not know," and turned away.

EXCEPTIONS. — If the quotation, ending *within* the sentence, closes with an exclamation point or an interrogation point, no comma is used after the quotation.

"Water, boy!" I ordered sharply.
"Why ask?" she repeated.

If a very brief quotation serves as an essential part of a sentence, the comma may be omitted:

Twice he cried "Help."
"Not at all" was her response.

Colon (or colon and dash)

NOTE. — The colon (or the colon and dash, rare) may introduce a one-sentence quotation within a sentence if the quoted statement is somewhat formal:

To the chief the officer reported tersely: "There's trouble ahead, sir."
After a pause the Senator spoke as follows to the waiting reporters: "You may say that I can say nothing."

Conventional Uses of Punctuation

Abbreviations: period

85. After abbreviations, use the period.

Mr. L. S. Hale, B. Sc., of Charleston, S. C., has registered.
With this storage there could have been supplied through the first dry period 118 M. G. D.; through the second dry period, 81 M. G. D.
On this sheet were platted the positions of lighthouses, buildings, tripods, etc., used as signals.

NOTE 1. — The period after an abbreviation is followed immediately by any other mark of punctuation required by the sentence structure, except the period; one period suffices to mark both the end of an abbreviation and the

end of the sentence, when the two coincide: He platted the positions of lighthouses, tripods, etc.

Roman numerals: no period

NOTE 2. — The period is no longer customary after Roman numerals.

William II is the present Emperor.
You will find this in Chapter II, near the end.

A comma is often used for clearness after a digit representing thousands (millions, etc.) except in dates or page references:

In 1915 the deaths from this disease numbered 13,314. (See Bull. IX, p. 1197.)

Direct quotations: quotation marks

86. To separate direct quotations from the context, use quotation marks.

He heard a sharp whisper. "Get the will from the second drawer to the left!" What did it mean? "Go on, go on!" he shouted.

EXCEPTION. — If the quotation is of some length, and separate from the body of the text, the marks are sometimes omitted:

Who can forget the memorable words:

> Fourscore and seven years ago our fathers brought forth on this continent a new nation, conceived in liberty, and dedicated to the proposition that all men are created equal. . . .

NOTE 1. — If quotation marks are used with a quotation extending through several paragraphs, the marks stand at the beginning of each paragraph, and at the end of the last only.

NOTE 2. — Single quotation marks enclose a quotation within a quotation:

"He turned quickly and said, 'I beg your pardon; I think her very beautiful.'"

If the inner quotation itself contains a quotation, use double marks for the latter:

"His answer was, 'That's the "most unkindest cut" I've had yet.'"

87. To enclose the titles of articles, chapters, poems, etc. in books, when they are embodied in the text, use quotation marks. **Titles of articles, chapters, etc.: quotation marks**

Have you read Mr. Gibson's poem, "In the Orchestra" in *Livelihood?*

See "In the Fifties" in *Harper's* for September.

You will find this in "Fur seals and the seal fisheries" in the *Proceedings of the Fourth International Fishery Congress.*

EXCEPTION. — In lists, footnotes, or parenthetical references separate from the body of the text, quotation marks for titles may be omitted. The article cited in the last sentence is thus listed in the United States Bureau of Fisheries Document No. 614, p. 11:

661. Fur seals and the seal fisheries. By Charles H. Townsend. (Proceedings of the Fourth International Fishery Congress, Washington, 1908.)

(Note that the title of the publication is distinguished from that of the article only by the capitalization of all important words. — See **101**, *5.*)

NOTE. — Practice as to titles varies: the preferable usage is to *italicize* titles of separate publications — books, pamphlets, periodicals, proceedings or transactions of societies — and of works of art, etc.; but the United States Government *Style Book* and other good authorities favor quotation marks for *all* titles of literary works, works of art, etc. (See **137**, *2.*) Anyone writing for publication by any particular publishing house should ascertain the system recommended by that house, and then use that system consistently. Above all avoid the error of marking a single title in two ways, by italics and quotation marks.

88. If quotation marks and other punctuation marks come together, observe the following rules: **Relative position of quotation marks and other marks**

1. Quotation marks always follow a period or a comma.

"Yes," he said, "I do."

2. Quotation marks always follow dots (or stars) marking an omission from the quotation.

He wrote " Breathes there a man . . . " ; you know the rest.

3. Quotation marks always follow another punctuation mark if that mark belongs to the quotation.

He cried " Help ! "

4. Quotation marks always precede another mark (except period or comma, in accordance with *1*) if that mark does not belong to the quotation alone.

His plea was " self defense " !

General Example : Can you tell me the difference between " apt," " liable," and " likely " ; between " noted " and " notorious " ? I refer to the words in the passage entitled " The Absconder." Rewrite (making all necessary corrections) the paragraph beginning, " Realizing that detection was inevitable. . . ." Ask yourself, " How can I make this more interesting ? "

Sign of genitive (possessive): apostrophe

89. As a sign of the genitive (possessive) case of nouns, use the apostrophe. (See **113**, *10.*)

This *man's* work ; two *men's* time ; two *days'* time ; *Burns's* poetry ; *Montross's* family; the *duchess'* (or *duchess's*) family.

Sign of plural of letters, etc.: apostrophe

90. As a sign of the plural of letters, signs, figures, words used as such, etc., use the apostrophe before *s*.

Two *t's ;* all his *if's* and *and's ;* all the *4's* and *9's.*

91. To indicate the omission of a letter or letters in contractions, the apostrophe is used.

They *don't* care to join the *Ass'n.* [Such contractions as the second are not permissible except in purely commercial or statistical writing.]

Sign of omitted letter: apostrophe

92. To indicate the omission of part of a quotation use dots (or stars or dashes).

Omission from a quotation: dots (stars, dashes)

> The location of quarries . . . located outside the land granted to the city shall first be approved by the Secretary of the Interior.
>
> ". . . and not a soul, to tell
> Why thou art desolate, can e'er return."

93. To express doubt (as to the accuracy of statistics, etc.) use the interrogation point in parentheses.

Uncertainty in statistics: interrogation point in parentheses

> Chaucer was born in 1340 (?) and died in 1400.

NOTE. — The ironical use of this symbol, like the ironical use of the exclamation point, is weak and in questionable taste in any writing not familiar in tone. AVOID: "She says her common sense (!) will guide her." — "Her common sense (?) will guide her."

94. To indicate the writer's interpolation into quoted or cited matter, use brackets.

Interpolation in quoted matter: brackets

> He testified that he [Mr. Brayton] was not present.
> "This *notorious imposture* [the italics are mine] caused his downfall," writes his biographer.

Exercise 1

In each of the following groups of similar sentences, explain the difference in meaning indicated by the difference in punctuation.

1. The experiment is a failure. The experiment is a failure! The experiment is a failure? 2. The plan, which I recommend, is as follows. The plan which I

recommend is as follows. 3. He was a glum, big, and stupid fellow. He was a glum, big and burly fellow. 4. You ask why ? You ask why ! 5. They dispersed when they were assured that no more bulletins would be posted. They dispersed at midnight, when they were assured that no more bulletins would be posted. 6. He obeys when I threaten to punish him. He obeys, when I threaten to punish him. He obeys — when I threaten to punish him ! 7. He has spoken at these institutions : Harvard, Yale, Princeton, and Cornell. He has spoken at these institutions : Harvard, Yale, Washington and Jefferson. 8. I crossed the room and looked out the window, which opened on the garden. I crossed the room and looked out the window that opened on the garden. 9. He stated his reason ; he thoroughly disliked the task. He stated his reason : he thoroughly disliked the task. 10. The four inspectors, who had investigated the condition of the waterway, presented their report. The four inspectors who had investigated the condition of the waterway presented their report. 11. He seemed glad to be with us; he was often lonely, he said. He seemed glad to be with us. He was often lonely, he said. 12. This is the village of Grantley, where I once lost my purse, you remember. This is the village where I once lost my purse. 13. He was impudent, he was even insolent. (See **76**, *3*, NOTE. Can you justify the comma here?) He was impudent; he was even insolent. 14. This is my cousin, Mary, of whom I've often spoken. This is my cousin Mary, of whom I've often spoken. This is the cousin of whom I've often spoken. 15. I accept because you do. I accept, because you do. 16. The bare fact, that he disappeared so suddenly, is enough to condemn him in the eye of the public. The bare fact that he disappeared so suddenly is enough to condemn him in the eye of the public. 17. To have doubted, to have wavered, then to have summoned courage and succeeded against his own expectation, — and then to see the work shattered at one blow ! To have doubted ; to have wavered ; then to have summoned courage and succeeded against his own expectation ; and then to see the work shattered at one blow ! 18. His face was displeasing, cold and unresponsive. His

face was pale, cold, and unresponsive. 19. Angry and perturbed, I was at a disadvantage. Angry and perturbed I was not, whatever else I may have been. 20. Now, we shall hear the truth. Now we shall hear the truth. 21. And there, sure enough, stood Granger, whom we had given up for lost. And there — sure enough ! — stood the very man whom we had given up for lost. 22. It was a dark, gray day. It was a dark gray material. 23. The report continues : " The next witness (John T. Wilson) testified to the defendant's veracity." The report continues : " The next witness [John T. Wilson] testified to the defendant's veracity."

Exercise 2

State whether or not you would allow the following sentences to stand as punctuated; if not, how you would change the punctuation. Give reasons for your answers.

1. They had long ceased to pay the annual visit to the old farm ; though both still spoke of it as home. 2. It is perhaps just as well that the decision once made cannot be revoked. 3. Some day there may be a more general use of ozone, on the other hand we must determine by accurate experiment whether the properties of ozone are as valuable to man as we hope. 4. The risk, which she incurs, is all the time visible, it cannot be ignored. 5. Amy dimpling with pleasure made her choice. 6. She was born in the Bay State ; became a schoolma'am in an Arizona mining camp; by way of reporting miner's gossip worked into journalism ; served on the staff of a Phoenix daily ; became actively interested in woman suffrage, and has since been chiefly busy with the furthering of that movement. 7. I can't say my friends approved of my wanderings, they certainly disapproved of my companions. 8. We reserve the right to drop every member, who in our judgment proves undesirable. 9. He is in earnest and I am even more so. 10. Then occurred an astounding thing ; Lancy disappeared before our very eyes !

11. He stood unmoved. Although the very world seemed to be reeling about him. 12. His was an admirable rough and ready method. 13. Morgan's strength having somewhat revived we again set forth. 14. One no longer saw the boy in Hendon, he had become suddenly mature. 15. Bateke Point is the south extreme of a large, round and hilly projection. 16. I, myself, will prove the charge true. 17. I myself will prove the charge true. 18. Your reason is, that she is unreliable? 19. However that may be I shall not fail her now. 20. He is an honored, tried and trusty servitor of our house. 21. The total tonnage arriving from upstream in the German Rhine harbors in 1907, was 4.6 million tons. 22. You can do the first problem, you say? Well, whoever can, can do the second also. 23. The following measurements will give an idea of the size and capacity of the wharf; total length, 985 feet; total width, 54 feet; capacity of vessel space; 985 feet; car capacity on wharf — 59 cars. 24. It is an established fact that opium, like tobacco came to the East from Europe. 25. He is usually promptness itself; therefore I am very anxious. 26. The "Old Landon House" where I was born is still standing. 27. Therefore the only useful comparisons between water and rail rates, are comparisons between pure rail rates and water and rail rates with transshipment. 28. He has deceived me more than once, nevertheless I shall give him one more trial. 29. It will be difficult to secure enough signatures for his petition is not generally approved. 30. New York hotels, almost without exception, are doing a record business for the month of November and if you want to engage in comfortable talk about prosperity call upon a hotel proprietor.

Exercise 3

Make any necessary or advisable changes in the punctuation of the following sentences.

1. Caves, which contain the implements of prehistoric man, have been found in the following countries; England, Belgium, Moravia and Switzerland. 2. Valley

Forge where Washington's troops endured a terrible winter you remember is not far from Philadelphia. 3. His first argument is, that armament for defense is justifiable. 4. The sheriff, though his life was threatened staunchly protected his prisoner, consequently he maintained the honor of the county. 5. Who is it Vic, that you are talking about ? You don't mean the woman, who spoke to you so rudely at the Morton's tea. 6. Margaret looked stonily out the window her back turned square upon Carton. While Georgia who was obviously perplexed fidgeted in her chair and tried to engage Carton, in spite of his obvious inattention in conversation. 7. My boy the time, when a vital decision must be made on the spot, comes once at least to every man, therefore you must not let your indecision become a habit. 8. His first involuntary mental comment was Was she telling the truth ? 9. Molly is a silly troublesome good hearted woman whom you cant for the life of you dislike however much you disapprove. 10. The game having been played and lost what was left now to Masters, but open disgrace. 11. The chief point is however, that it is a quickly spreading epidemic disease, it invades a whole population and makes its way, from one place to another, along definite routes. 12. The only suggestion, which I have to make is, that we should be provided with more racks for our bicycles at present must be leaned up against the walls which are vine covered or thrown down on the ground. 13. The extravagant gallant effort of the individual players was wasted ; since they did not know how to expend that effort, to the best advantage. 14. The rumor was current in semi-official circles that the Government failing to receive any official report would send, immediately, a sharp inquiry by cable. 15. That the party's ranks are swelled, annually, by a steadily increasing influx, shows that it is based on a permanent and not a fluctuating need. 16. You know my dear Monroe that, whatever his merits he succeeded in holding his public and my opinion is, that his merits were about as high as the average press notice, which he received, made them out to be. 17. Socialism is not only a national but an international organization, in the present great war the Socialists are realizing that

on their shoulders rests the responsibility of upholding the principle of universal brotherhood. 18. The raid killed a score of people chiefly women, and children : it destroyed a number of cottages. 19. Peter suddenly exclaimed "By Jove, the idiot's making for our own goal. Whats struck "Old Levelhead" I wonder." 20. It was a long tedious harangue. 21. My companion was young, fresh eyed and of the opposite sex. 22. Every student should attend the meetings of the Student's Association when matters of common interest are discussed. 23. The two games this last week end were disappointing, neither of the teams played as well as it could. 24. The Freshman team doing well in many respects, spoiled their game by playing out of position. 25. Before he had time to drink his wife dashed the glass from his hand. 26. The white steps below the door gleamed perceptibly though shaded by the heavy overhanging vines and on the balcony above the moon cast its full revealing light. She was in neither place, door sill and balcony were empty ! She had failed me a fact that stung me deeply, more deeply than I was willing to admit. 27. In newspaper language all items are called simply stories without distinction.

Exercise 4

Punctuate properly the following sentences.

1. The effect upon our commerce is negligible that becomes daily more apparent. 2. I say Harvey mind your ps and qs. 3. The Magna Charta which was so named because of its length is far greater in national significance than in size. 4. The explanation of the Seniors defeat is that they invariably sent the ball straight to the offending side which always promptly sent it back 5. The head master said in manifest surprise You dont know whose money is paying your expenses Well my boy Ill tell you its Mr Burtons The old man said to me If the lad deserves an education he shall have it and I will meet its costs Now think continued the master gravely how that name Old Tightwad sounds on *your* lips 6. He likes to tell stories which show the affection in which he is held

not by the rich but by those whose life is hard he covets the regard of such men and women 7. Having been married two months before the war to a young French journalist who volunteered at the first call she did not even have the comfort of staying with his family in his home where she could get news quickly instead she had to come to America where she knew no one she had to become familiar with a strange land its language and its customs No wonder little Madame to use the name we all gave her was a very lonely person 8. A statement in the Minneapolis Times reads as follows The shock lasted about one minute and was generally felt through the extreme southern part of California it caused apprehension throughout the Imperial Valley where considerable damage resulted from the shocks last July the earth motion today was barely perceptible at San Diego Los Angeles and San Bernardino 9. I cant believe said Moore that things are as bad as they seem but hang it theyre bad enough They cant go on getting worse But no more of such talk 10. The question in his mind said Mr Huxton was how long would the workers endure such conditions I quote a homely proverb he said which you will do well to ponder Even the worm will turn 11. That the sparkling Miss Gordon has excellent claim to the title of Americas leading comedienne no one could deny who saw her brilliant performance last night in the clever farce Jack of Spades coming at the end of a season singularly barren of real successes this sprightly little play furnishes a genuine relief for the supporting cast is as irresistible in its way as the star in hers and the farce is as good as the cast all of which is saying not a little 12. If it were not for this war which makes European travel out of the question I should spend next year abroad partly in Germany which is the former home of my parents and partly in a city where I could get what I want in the way of the study of art probably Paris or Rome which would you advise But its all out of the question now Im afraid 13. They can do good work as a team as well as individually remembering their amazing rally in last weeks game we can hope that in their next game the crowning event of their season they will prove formidable opponents giving the foe a run for their money

14. O Larry called out his visitors voices in a unison that betokened premeditation We depute you to write an ode based on the world famous sentiment Oh why should the spirit of mortal be proud 15. That is a sensible question in answering which however I shall have great difficulty nevertheless I shall do my best 16. We came to a point where the path abruptly turned into the wood and ceased therefore baffled we halted there where we had been so full of confidence a moment before 17. The report which the committee next presented was on membership it recorded among other things an increase in membership of 140 during the year a record which far surpassed that of any previous year 18. Hamlet which is the choice of the committee is I think very difficult for amateurs however I believe it would be less hard than Othello 19. Speaking of the care of children Mrs A J Wharton spoke in part as follows Great care should be bestowed on the selection of nurses for the parents in certain classes of society at least are notoriously negligent of their childrens interests 20. The selection of a textbook for this course is very difficult moreover I am not certain that it is a course which would profitably follow any one textbook 21. This malady like many others more generally recognized as maladies is the work of a tiny germ which takes root in the dark blue regions of your mood before you know it is there it flourishes and your symptoms grow grave then in the end you succumb a victim to black melancholy 22. Our American universities have amazingly large enrollments Columbia for example has over sixteen thousand students and the University of California has more than eleven thousand 23. I wish to call attention to the following three features all of which are involved in the proposed system direct influence of the professional coach indirect influence of that coach through students who have worked in close touch with him absolute student control 24. The speaker pointed out the large share of the audience in the success of a dramatic performance and indeed we all realize that the more keenly appreciative the audience the more vital is the production 25. The increased difficulties of an out of door performance i.e. the problems of arranging entrances and exits of

adapting the actors voices to the acoustic conditions of holding the attention of the audience demand much time effort and expert knowledge but these the students are usually incapable of giving in any adequate degree 26. My friend Mason who characteristically called upon us on this of all afternoons when harassed by rebellious hangings misfitting furniture and the stupidest of moving-van men we were not in the least in the mood for callers was left to the somewhat unreliable hospitality of our youngest Horatio John aged four 27. Since we are so obviously and easily winning the game has lost all interest for me lets go home 28. His weakness his indecision his lack of clear intellectual honesty all these contributed to his ruin 29. In this essay the following point is made until the pacificists furnish a moral equivalent of war that is a nonmilitary activity that will insure the preservation and fostering of the ideals of hardihood the manly virtues hitherto preserved and fostered by war alone until they do this they will make no notable advance towards universal and permanent peace 30. My opposition if you must know is based on this reason that our present need is for an honest and a fearless man and he is neither 31. In the process of handing down the tradition has grown

Exercise 5

Explain the reason for each punctuation mark in the following passages. In any instance where you would accept or prefer another mark, explain why.

1. Make up your minds, then, to take a rank of A in some subject, at least B in pretty nearly everything, and nothing lower than C in anything. If you ask why I place such stress upon these letters, let me tell you what they mean.

A means that you have grasped a subject; thought about it; reacted upon it; made it your own; so that you can give it out again with the stamp of your individual insight upon it.

B means that you have taken it in, and can give it out again in the same form in which it came to you. In

details, what you say and write sounds like what the A man says and writes; but the words come from the book or the teacher, not from you. No B man can ever make a scholar; he will be a receiver rather than a giver, a creature rather than a creator to the end of his days.

C means the same as B, only that your second-hand information is partial and fragmentary, rather than complete.

D means that you have been exposed to a subject often enough and long enough to leave on the plate of your memory a few faint traces which the charity of the examiner is able to identify. Poor and pitiful as such an exhibition is, we allow a limited number of D's to count toward a degree.

E means total failure. Two E's bring a letter to your parents, stating that if the college were to allow you to remain longer, under the impression that you are getting an education, it would be receiving money under false pretences. . . .

Whatever you do, do not try to cheat in examinations or written work. If you succeed, you write *fraud, fraud, fraud,* all over your diploma; and if you get caught — there will be no diploma for you.

(William DeWitt Hyde.)

2. There was once a story current that when Stevenson came to America in 1879 on his first trip he had gone to the office of *The Century*, then *Scribner's*, and had not been received with open arms. When he came again, in 1887, Mr. Gilder saw him and they talked over the earlier episode. Here is Mr. Gilder's account, contained in a letter to Mr. Talcott Williams:

I have no doubt that Stevenson used the expression "fired out" with reference to his experience in our old office. That is the term he and I used in talking the thing over, the other evening. I had three delightful visits in his room by his invitation, — two of them very long visits, — and that among other things was freely discussed. I remember asking him who it was that "fired him out." (In point of fact, of course, nobody fired

him out.) He looked at me with a quizzical expression and said: "I don't know but it was you. Yes," he said, "I think it was you, now that I look at you."

I said, "Oh, pshaw, now! Dr. Holland was a large likeness of me; it might have been he."

"No," he said, "I think it was you."

"Well," I said, "see here, now, when was this?"

He said it was in July, . . . 1879.

"Hurrah!" said I, "that lets me out." And I jumped up with great delight, for as you know I was in Europe from March, 1879, to June, 1880. Between you and me and the lamp post I have no doubt I would have made the same answer to him as was made — whatever that answer was. He brought no manuscript, and simply wanted to write for the magazine.

(The Bookman.)

3. Despite the imperious and undeniable appeal of youth, there must always be a place upon the boards for the dramatist who says, —

Grow old along with me!
The best is yet to be,
The last of life, for which the first was made:
Our times are in his hand
Who saith, "A whole I planned,
Youth shows but half; trust God: see all, nor be afraid!"

(Clayton Hamilton.)

Exercise 6

Explain the value of each mark in the following lines. Copy the words, using other marks where it seems that they might reasonably be used; explain the difference in effect.

We're foot — slog — slog — slog — sloggin' over Africa!
Foot — foot — foot — foot — sloggin' over Africa —
(Boots — boots — boots — boots, movin' up and down again!)
There's no discharge in the war!

(Kipling.)

The year's at the spring
And day's at the morn;
Morning's at seven;
The hillside's dew-pearled;
The lark's on the wing;
The snail's on the thorn:
God's in his heaven —
All's right with the world!

(BROWNING.)

CHAPTER FIVE

CAPITALIZATION AND THE USE OF THE HYPHEN

Capitals

95. Our use of capitalization is determined more largely than we at first suppose by the thought of our sentences. The main functions of capitals are to mark the beginning of a unit of thought, and to give special prominence to the names of things that we think of as individuals — such as persons, cities, books. A few uses are fixed (see **96–100**); but most allow some variation according to our personal interpretation of the special case (see those included under **101**). The rules here given represent what may be called strict literary and scientific practice, and can be safely followed, if intelligently applied to given instances. It is true, however, as recent authorities note, that the tendency among writers of practical English (in newspaper and business offices, for example) is to lessen decidedly the use of capitals; one teacher of business English gives his students this advice: "Use capitals only when they are plainly required; when in doubt, use small letters." Whatever system is adopted, the rule for every writer is: "Apply your chosen method intelligently and consistently."

Their function

Variations in practice

First word of a sentence

96. Capitalize the first word of every sentence.

Now it was too late. *He* turned away.

First word of a direct quotation

97. Capitalize the first word of every direct quotation.

He answered sulkily, "*That* is my affair."

NOTE 1. — Capitalize the first word of a question or statement formally propounded in direct form, but not quoted, within the sentence:

The question is, *How* can we raise the funds? [CONTRAST: The question is *how* we can raise the funds.]

NOTE 2. — Do not capitalize the word with which a quotation, begun and interrupted in a sentence, is resumed within the same sentence, unless the word would be capitalized for some other reason.

"You see," he called, "*she* did come."

NOTE 3. — Do not capitalize the first word of a directly quoted expression closely incorporated into the structure of the sentence:

One might say that — as his mother puts it — "*he* lives for his work."

First word of a line of poetry

98. Capitalize the first word of every line of poetry.

But while reproof around him rings,
He turns a keen untroubled face
Home, to the instant need of things.

I* and *O

99. Capitalize the pronoun *I* and the interjection *O*.

And *I*'m afraid — *O*, Joe, *I* am sure — that he'll come!

NOTE. — This is probably because these words, as single letters, would be otherwise inconspicuous. (Contrast *I* with *ich, je, yo, ego,* etc.)

***Whereas,* etc., in resolutions**

100. In formal resolutions, capitalize the words *Whereas* and *Resolved* and the word immediately following each.

Whereas, It has been deemed expedient . . . ; be it therefore *Resolved, That* . . . . (For the proper italicizing, see **137**, *10*.)

101. In general, capitalize *proper nouns* and *words used as names,* and the *important words in phrases so used;* capitalize *adjectives and other words derived from proper names;* capitalize *abbreviations of all such words.*

General rule: proper nouns and terms used as names; proper adjectives

NOTE. — Here there is room for individual variation, and particularly for variation between strict literary and scientific practice and business practice. Of the latter difference Marshall (*Business English,* 1913, pp. 55–56) presents the following evidence (most of the examples under "Business Usage" being taken from the Chicago *Record-Herald*) :

Literary Style	*Business Usage*
The Ohio River	The Ohio river
Fourth Street	Fourth street
The Board of Public Works	The board of public works
The President of the Rock Island System	The president of the Rock Island system

Variation between strict literary practice and business practice

In general, in determining whether or not to capitalize a word, apply this principle : Capitalize it if it serves as the *name* or *an organic and important part of the name* of a *specific individual* (person, place, organization, etc.) apart from his or its general class, function, etc. ; or, if it is derived from such a name, capitalize it *if its specific force is retained.* (Thus write "More's *Utopia*" but "every man's *utopia*" ; write "*Chinese* pottery," but "*china* dishes.") — Some special applications of this principle are recorded in the notes under the following articles.

1. Capitalize the names of individual persons, countries, cities, streets, buildings, oceans, rivers, ships, etc.

Names of individual persons, countries, etc.

Thomas Edison, Mexico, Denver, the Auditorium, Euclid Avenue, Boston Common, North River, the Pacific (Ocean), the S.S. *Megantic;* Our Lady, the Quaker City, the Oil King, the Father of Waters, the Near East, the Balkan States, the North Atlantic States.

Capital not used when specific force of a word is lost

NOTE 1. — When the specific force of the proper noun is lost, the capital is no longer used :

A *czar* (*tsar*, from Latin *Cæsar*), a new *utopia*.

Though the dictionaries still print *Chautauqua* (for a series of educational meetings) and *Maxim* (for the Maxim gun), the newspapers already speak of chautauquas, of maxims ; we see also " to run a marathon," " to bring down a zeppelin."

NOTE 2. — When a common noun (*bay, cape, city, county, forest, gap, hill, lake, mountain, ocean, river, sea, state, township, ward,* etc.) is used not as a name or an organic part of a name, it is not capitalized :

We crossed the *river* Rhine at Köln. — He speaks for the *city* of Richmond. — The Carnegie Library on Seventh Street is the largest *library* [not *Library*] in the *city* [not *City*].

Obviously, plurals of such nouns are not capitalized unless they name two or more specific individuals :

There are several fine Catholic *churches* in the city.— We crossed three *states* today. [CONTRAST : The city has two *Christ Churches.* — BETTER : . . . two *churches* named *Christ Church.*]

Adjectives

NOTE 3. — When an adjective is used not as an organic part of the name, it is not capitalized :

The *great* Sahara desert [contrast " the *Great* Lakes "]. — The *northern* Atlantic States [contrast " the *North* Atlantic States "]. — The *seventh* regiment to leave [contrast " the *Seventh* Regiment "].

Observe that the adjectives *north, south, northern,* etc. are not capitalized unless used as organic parts of specific

names. (The corresponding nouns and adverbs are likewise not capitalized unless referring to definite regions.)

North, southern, etc.

It's on the *north* side of Market Street. [CONTRAST: We live on the *North Side* (an established proper name). — There's the *North Star.* — We saw the *Southern* Cross.]

It's somewhere to the *south.* — To reach it, turn *west.* [CONTRAST: We go to the *South* (referring to the southern region as a definite locality) every winter.]

a. Capitalize a common noun used, by personification, as a proper name:

Common noun personified

America is ruled by *Bigness;* everywhere his forces triumph.

2. Capitalize names of the Deity.

Names of the Deity

The Lord, God, Love Divine, Heavenly Father, Son of Man.

As a rule, capitalize a personal pronoun referring to Deity if the noun to which it refers does not stand near enough to make the reference unmistakable; as a rule do not capitalize a relative pronoun referring to Deity, since the antecedent is usually present.

Let us follow the teachings of *Him, whose* truth shall deliver us. — When Christ saw the multitude, *he* went up into the mountain.

3. Capitalize adjectives (and other words) derived from proper names, as long as their specific force is felt.

Proper adjectives and other derivatives from proper names

Chinese fans, *Roman* coins, *Byronic* poetry, the *Biblical* version [often *biblical*]; *china* doll, *roman* type, *boycott* [from Captain Boycott], *galvanize* (from Luigi Galvani), *volt* [from Alessandro Volta], *scriptural* [less often *Scriptural*] authority.

***Pasteurize* or *pasteurize*, etc.**

NOTE. — The dictionaries still give *Pasteurized*, *Pasteurization*, etc., but *pasteurized* is coming into use in newspapers, advertisements, and elsewhere, as the word grows so common that recognition of the connection with Pasteur disappears.

Titles used with or as names

4. Capitalize a title preceding a proper name, standing in abbreviated form after the name, or used alone to name a definite person.

King George, President Wilson, ex-President Roosevelt, Professor Kittredge, Doctor Grenfell, Mary E. Woolley, LL.D., Charles Henry Davis, C. E., James Hampton, Esq.

NOTE 1. — Distinguish carefully between the use of a title as part of the actual name and the use of it as a common noun :

"The *Doctor* takes his steak rare," she said. — Call the *doctor*.

The *President* addressed Congress. — Woodrow Wilson, *president* of the United States. — Woodrow Wilson is *president* of the United States. — The *president* of the United States is elected for a four-year term.

ex-president

NOTE 2. — Observe the small *e* in *ex-*: ex-President Roosevelt, an ex-president of the club.

jr., sr.

NOTE 3. — Do not capitalize *jr.* or *sr.* following a name : John Haines, jr.

Titles of books, chapters, plays, works of art

5. Capitalize important words and numerals in the titles of separate publications — books, pamphlets, reports, periodicals, newspapers, etc. — and in the headings of specific divisions of particular books; also in the titles of plays, works of art, etc.

The Inside of the Cup, *Proceedings of the Fourth International Fishery Congress*, the *Koran*, the *Bible*, *Holy Writ*, the *Psalms*, the *Independent*, the *Cin-*

cinnati Enquirer, Introduction, Chapter IV, *Mice and Men*, the *Winged Victory*.

NOTE 1. — Distinguish carefully between the use of titles, headings, etc., as such (*capitalized*) and the use of them as common nouns (*not capitalized*):

In *Types of News Writing* the title of *Chapter III* is "*Fires and Accidents*"; one of the headings in this *chapter* [not *Chapter*] is "*Contents of Story*." — Is it in *Act I*? No, in the second *act* [not *Act*].

The *Preface* and carefully compiled *Index* are helpful features of Doctor Morton's book. [CONTRAST: Matters pertaining to *preface* and *index* must not be overlooked in the preparation of manuscript.]

In the *Old Testament* I most often read the *Psalms*; in the *New*, the various *parables* [preferable to *Parables*]. — The *Sermon on the Mount* is one of the finest parts of the Scriptures. [CONTRAST: "Most men do not know that any nation but the Hebrews have had a *scripture*." (THOREAU.)]

References, footnotes, etc.

NOTE 2. — In references, particularly in footnotes, do not capitalize minor subdivisions or abbreviations: *rule* 8, *note* 5, *n.* 5, *ch.* 7, *ch.* VII, *vol.* 15. (The United States Government *Style Book* authorizes the small letter with unabbreviated forms followed by an arabic numeral; *volume* 3, *chapter* 1.)

Quoted newspaper titles

a. In quoting titles of newspapers, periodicals, etc., as a rule do not capitalize *the* when it is the first word of a title.

He bought the *Chicago Tribune* and the *Saturday Evening Post*.

Titles of articles in periodicals

b. In titles of separate articles in published transactions, periodicals, etc., frequently only the first word and proper nouns or their derivatives are capitalized.

He referred us to "Sea *m*ussels and *d*ogfish as *f*ood" (in *Proceedings of the Fourth International Fishery Congress*).

Names of classes of people: races, tribes, families

6. Capitalize the specific names of classes into which people are divided, on whatever basis.

a. Capitalize the names of races, peoples, tribes, and families.

The Aryans, the Teutons, the Americans, the Californians, the Jeffersons.

***De, le, van, von, O', Fitz, Mac,* etc., in family names**

NOTE. — As regards prepositions, or other elements, like *de, le, van, von, Mac,* in family names, usage and authorities differ; the following directions agree with prevailing practice.

1. As a rule do not capitalize the preposition if it is preceded by a forename, initial, or title; but *Le, La,* and *Van* in this position are commonly capitalized.

Professor *de* Beaumont, Léon *de* Vesly; Edmund *von* Mach; S. *Le* Coq, L. A. *La* Garde; J. C. *Van* Dyke, P. *Van* der Velde. [BUT: Henry *van* Dyke, H. A. *van* Bakel; these and other such variations are determined by personal preference.]

(The United States Government *Style Book* authorizes the small letter in *all* names, so used, from foreign languages.)

2. As a rule capitalize the preposition if no name, initial, or title precedes; but *von* is properly never capitalized.

De Vestel, *Van* Buren (but *von* Liebig).

The use of names like *von Tirpitz* without preceding title, name, or initial is questionable, except in lists, indices, etc.; avoid especially such forms as *von Tirpitz* at the beginning of a sentence.

(The United States *Style Book,* however, authorizes the capital in *all* names, so used, from foreign languages, including those with *von.*)

3. Capitalize *Fitz, O, Mc, Mac;* capitalize the letter following *Mc;* as to the letter following *Fitz,* and the letter following *Mac,* authorities and usage vary so much

that the only possible direction is : As a matter of common courtesy use the form adopted by the family or person in question.

H. O'Neale ; Admiral Fitzgerald, E. A. FitzGerald, C. M. Fitz-Gerald ; C. McLean, Kenneth McKenzie ; G. MacLean, Percy MacKaye ; Compton Mackenzie, J. Macarthur.

b. Capitalize the names of religious, philosophical, and similar divisions and bodies, and of the philosophies, creeds, etc., established by them.

Religious and philosophical bodies and creeds

Christians, Buddhists, Council of Trent ; Christianity, Platonism, the Apostles' Creed, the Immaculate Conception.

c. Capitalize the names of legislative and similar bodies, and of the measures, laws, etc., enacted by them.

Legislative and other bodies and measures

Congress, the Constitutional Convention ; the Constitution, the Army Reorganization Bill (= the Hay Bill, the Hay bill), the Treaty of Paris.

d. Capitalize the names of alliances, associations, clubs, companies, etc., of all kinds.

Alliances, clubs, companies, etc.

The Dual Alliance, the League to Enforce Peace, the Republican Party, the Society for the Promotion of Engineering Education, the Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company, the Rotary Club, the Harvard Union, the Senior Class [class], the Sixth Grade [grade].

NOTE. — Observe that an ordinal is capitalized if it is an organic part of such names : the *Seventh* Regiment. (See **101**, *1*, NOTE 3.)

7. Capitalize names of educational institutions, departments, courses, subjects, and classes. (This rule includes cases illustrated also under *6*, *d*.)

Names of educational institutions, departments, courses, etc.

University of Illinois, Rose Polytechnic Institute, Brown's Business College, Steele High School, the Department of Chemistry, Course I (Embryology), English A (Narrative Writing), the Freshman Class [class], the Freshmen.

NOTE. — Do not capitalize such terms if they are not specific names.

Isn't such a *course* too advanced for *freshmen* in the *high school?* — I am studying *chemistry*.

Names of divisions of time (except seasons)

8. As a rule, capitalize names of divisions of time, except names of seasons.

The Middle Ages, the Renaissance, the Age of Reason, the Sixteenth Century, Holy Week, Labor Day, Monday; the winter of 1776.

NOTE 1. — When names of divisions of time refer to general periods, the capital is unnecessary :

Throughout the middle ages ; scientific thought during the nineteenth century.

a.m.*, *p.m.*, *B.C.*, *A.D.

NOTE 2. — The present tendency favors *a.m.*, *p.m.*, (used by the United States Government). — Use *B.C.*, *A.D.*

Names of historical periods, movements, etc.

9. Capitalize names of important historical movements, periods, etc.

The First Crusade, the French Revolution, the Boston Massacre, the Civil War, the Battle of the Marne.

Scientific names

10. Capitalize scientific names of genera, orders, families, and classes, but not the names of species or varieties (unless the name is derived from the proper name of a person — not a place — or from a generic name).

Viola canina, var. *puberula ; Conularia missouriensis, Lithostrotion canadense, Potamogeton Robbinsii, Linaria Linaria.*

Use of the Hyphen

Hyphen

Use at end of line and in compound words

102. The hyphen unites words or parts of words. To be able to use it correctly at the end of a line or in compound words, you can only observe reliable present practice and then make thoughtful application of general rules to the given case; the following sections, however, will be found useful in that they embody some fundamental principles and indicate present tendencies.

The Hyphen at the End of a Line

Hyphen never at the beginning of a line

103. When it is necessary to divide a word at the end of a line, indicate the connection of the parts by a hyphen placed at the end of the first line; never put it at the beginning of the second line.

Unnecessary divisions to be avoided

NOTE. — Do not divide a word unless division is unavoidable. — Avoid division of proper names in formal social correspondence.

Rules for division of words into syllables

104. Divide a word between syllables.

For the proper division of words into syllables, the New Standard Dictionary gives the following rules, in which "every essential point is comprehended." (For a much more detailed discussion see Webster's New International Dictionary, p. lix.)

I. A consonant or a digraph or trigraph between two vowels goes into the later syllable when the first vowel is long, half-long, or obscure (except *-er* as in *gen-er-al*); as, *fa-tal, de-throne, sepa-rate.* . . .

II. A consonant between two vowels goes into the earlier syllable when the first vowel is short and has any stress: as, *prod-uct, rap-id.* . . .

III. Adjoining consonants usually separate into two syllables; as, *at-tract, con-demn, connec-tion, compel-ling, fret-ted.* . . .

NOTE. — Doubled consonants ending a primitive word are kept together before a purely English suffix; as, *tell-ing, hiss-ing.*

IV. Purely English suffixes (*-ed, -er, -est, -eth, -ing, -ish, -y*) are always kept distinct (except when the terminal letter of the primitive word is repeated, as in *compel-ling* [and except in *twin-kling, doub-ling,* or *dou-bling*]); as, *hat-ed, bak-er, baptiz-ing* . . . . [This rule supersedes I and III: cf. *hat-ed, point-ed.*]

The following directions are corollaries or supplements to rule **104.**

A single syllable never to be divided

1. Never divide a single syllable.

INCORRECT: *su-re, che-ap, prov-ed.*

a. Never divide before *-ed* unless it is pronounced as a separate syllable. (Avoid the division before *-ed* in any case; see *5,* NOTE.)

CORRECT: *un-skilled* [not *unskill-ed*]; *promot-ed.*

A digraph never to be divided

b. Never divide a digraph (two letters representing one sound).

CORRECT: *pa-thetic* [not *pat-hetic*], *sign-ing* [not *sig-ning;* but *sig-nature*], *ging-ham* [not *gin-gham*], *cheap* [not *che-ap*].

Unpronounceable combinations never to be made

2. Never divide a word so that either part is unpronounceable.

CORRECT: *pros-tration* [not *prostr-ation*], *Xerx-es* [not *Xe-rxes*], *punc-tuation* [not *pun-ctuation*].

3. Divide a word, when the syllabification allows, after a vowel. **Division when possible after a vowel**

medi-tative [preferable to *med-itative*].

4. Try to divide so that the first part suggests what the rest of the word is to be; avoid a division in which the first part actually arouses false expectation. **Division when possible to suggest what follows**

geol-ogy [preferable to *ge-ology ;* see also *5*, NOTE].
hid-eous [preferable to *hide-ous*, which suggests some word like *hidebound ;* but no division of *hideous* is desirable].
punish-ment [preferable to *pun-ishment*, which might suggest *punning*, for example].

5. Avoid if possible the division of a word after or before a single letter. **Division after or before one or two letters to be avoided (except often with a prefix or a suffix)**

evict-ing, pana-cea [preferable to *e-victing, panace-a*].

NOTE. — Divisions before or after syllables of *two* letters are in general undesirable, especially divisions before *-ed* (*repre-sented* being preferable to *represent-ed*); often, however, division after prefixes *in-, un-, ex-*, etc., or before suffixes *-ly*, etc., is desirable; as in *un-warrantable, precise-ly.*

6. Avoid if possible the division of the last word in a paragraph, so as to avoid a last line consisting of a fragment of a word. **Division of last word in paragraph to be avoided**

The Hyphen in Compound Words

105. In forming compound words use the hyphen in accordance with the following general suggestions. Current practice is so varied, and wise decision depends so largely on the particular context, **Practice in compound words varied**

that rigid rules cannot be given. Though many exceptions to each of the following directions could be cited from printed pages, yet these directions serve to define prevailing tendencies, and to indicate that the proper practice depends on the sense of the compound in its context and also on the combination of letters that results from compounding.[1] It is possible also to give one rule that is universally applicable: Cleave consistently throughout a given discussion to a form once adopted, provided there is no ground in the context for change. (Do not write in line one "16-candlepower" and in line four "16 candle-power" and in line five "16 candle power.")

Consistency important

NOTE. — Compound words are formed by adding to a complete word one or more independent words (*nature study*, 30 *horsepower*), a prefix (*biweekly, semi-independent*), or a suffix (*skull-like, manhood*).

Hyphen to be used only as clearness demands

1. Omit the hyphen unless clearness demands it. (The present tendency is towards a restricted use of the hyphen.)

Use closely related parts as one word (*anticlimax, notebook*), loosely related parts (if independent words) as separate words (*electric light*).

[1] See "Method of Compounding Words" in the New Standard Dictionary, p. xxx. — The United States Government *Style Book* (pp. 92 ff.) gives brief rules and a convenient and comprehensive list of compound words, which thus gains a certain authority, though it is by no means consistent. — For a study of the practice of American technical journals see "Some Notes on the Writing of Compound Technical Terms," by C. W. Park (in *Bull. of the Soc. for the Promotion of Engineering Education*, VI, 1915, pp. 195 ff.).

NOTE. — Clearness demands the hyphen as a link in certain contexts ("He is a *normal schoolteacher*" but "He is a *normal-school teacher*") and also to prevent certain combinations of letters (*anti-imperial*).

Compound nouns usually without the hyphen

2. As a rule, write compound nouns without the hyphen.

Write compound nouns either as two separate words, if they are felt to be distinct, though related, or as one word, if they are felt to be inseparable. Words in frequent use, especially those ending in such generic terms as *-man, -power, -ship,* are likely to become inseparable units.

Those in frequent use generally written as one word

The following examples illustrate actual practice in accordance with this rule.

SEPARATE WORDS : rolling mill, air pump, machine shop, martyr president, life insurance company, railway rate legislation, parcel post (officially two words), post office (officially two words), mother tongue, foster mother, fellow citizen, city editor, rear admiral, lieutenant colonel, assistant business manager, commander in chief.[1]

ONE WORD : airship, battleship, foreman, airmen, workingman, waterpower, bricklayer, godson, grandmother, fatherland.

EXCEPTIONS. — *Father-in-law* seems to be almost universally preferred at present. — *Great-grandmother* employs the hyphen for clearness in context, as do *twenty-four, seven hundred and sixty-five, three-fourths, seven thirty-fourths, ninety-nine hundredths,* etc.

3. As a rule, write compound adjectives with the hyphen.

[1] See United States Government *Style Book*, 1913, p. 92: "Omit the hyphen in civil and military titles, as Attorney General, . . . lieutenant colonel, etc."

Compound adjectives as a rule with the hyphen

cast-iron plate, *first-class* passage, *twenty-fourth* year, *narrow-gage* railway, *six-cylinder* car, *magneto-electric* induction, *self-directing* body, *post-office* regulations [contrast *post office*, noun], *well-known* merchant, *long-expected* answer.

Exception in case of adjectives in frequent use

EXCEPTIONS. — Compound adjectives in frequent use are often written as one word : *airtight* (*watertight*) compartment, *heartfelt* praise. Combinations with a participle in which the verbal force of the participle is retained are often written as two words :

The case is *well developed*. — The answer has been *long expected*. — He was *poorly dressed*. (The adjective adhering to the noun is more likely to use the hyphen than is the predicate adjective. Note the difference in compound adjectives in this sentence : A *well-kept* lawn and a *neatly trimmed* hedge surround the *so-called* Haunted House, which is *well known* throughout the country.)

Prefixes and suffixes usually joined without hyphen

4. As a rule, join prefixes and suffixes to a word without using a hyphen; this holds particularly for compounds of frequent occurrence (like *extraordinary*).

antislavery, nonconformist, overreach, underrate, ultramarine, childlike, twofold, fatherhood, fellowship.

Exceptions

EXCEPTIONS. — In general, in case the prefix ends and the word begins either with a vowel or with the same consonant, or if the letter following the prefix is a capital, use the hyphen : *anti-imperial*, *anti-American*, *anti-Russian*, *extra-official* (but *extraordinary*), *post-tympanic*, *ultra-atomic* (also *ultra-red*, *ultra-violet*, etc.); *but overrun*, *underrate*, etc. — Always use the hyphen after *ex* (= *formerly serving as*) : *ex-President*, *ex-convict*. — After *quasi* use the hyphen (or, less good, write *quasi* as a separate word) : *quasi-historical*, *quasi-contract*. — If the word ends and the suffix begins with the same letter, generally use the hyphen : *scroll-like*. — (Note that *elect* in *president elect* is a separate adjective, not a suffix.)

a. Observe the use of the hyphen in technical works on language to indicate that a particle is not an independent word:

Use of hyphen to indicate parts of words

Both *-eous* and *-ious* are compound suffixes. — Add *pre-* to *suppose.*

106. The following list contains for reference some important words established or establishing themselves by usage as undivided units.

Words established or establishing themselves as inseparable units

airship
airtight
already [1]
although [1]
altogether [1]
anybody, anyone, etc.
banknote
battleship
bedrock
blueprint
bulkhead
candlepower
cannot
crowbar
everybody, everyone, etc.
farewell
flashlight
footnote
foreman
framework
goodby
handbook
heartbeat
herself, himself, etc.
horsepower
inasmuch
inside
instead
itself
lifesaving
manhole
manhood
midday, midnight
midshipman
moreover
nevertheless
newborn
nobody, nothing, etc. (but *no one*)
notwithstanding
oneself
overflow
railroad
railway
roundabout
semicolon
somebody, someone, etc.
stockholder
today, tonight, tomorrow
together
typewritten
voltmeter
watercolor
waterpower
watershed
whatever, whenever, etc.
without
withstand
woodwork
workingman
workman
wormeaten

[1] But not *alright* for *all right*, though this form is sometimes found in reputable magazines and newspapers. See list, **108.**

Exercise 1

Rewrite the following sentences, using capitals and hyphens when necessary or advisable. If any words here printed as two should or could be combined into one without the hyphen, write them as single words.

1. In reporting the condition of the tide gates of the shinnecock and peconic canal in 1901, the state engineer said : " it was necessary to place two coffer dams across the canal and to build a concrete wall ten feet deep below canal bottom with triple lap sheet piles twenty feet deep to prevent undermining." 2. Upholding the right of public criticism of the courts, judge white of the supreme court of the united states last night addressed the students of the harvard law school and many members of the massachusetts bar. 3. Tonight president wilson will be guest of honor at the banquet of the massachusetts bar association. he will be introduced by the toast master a. c. cowling, jr., president of the association, and will speak, it is expected, on some phase of the international situation facing the presidency and the administration as a result of the european war. 4. Any general european war must have far reaching influence on american commerce and industry. 5. The cologne steamboat navigation company closed with the holland steamboat navigation company a division of the middle and lower rhine, the rhine below cologne being assigned to the dutchmen. 6. " Father, o father," cried Madeline, " you haven't understood anything of what I've said ; my aversion is stronger, oh, far stronger, than you realize." 7. Rear admiral william hartley, u.s.n., speaking of the news of the navy, said, " as for me, i should wish to have four battle ships and need only two, rather than to have only two and need four." 8. The question is, how can the high school teacher in the country high school prepare his group of pupils for the demands to be made on some of them by the business manager or floor walker, for example, on

others by the editor in chief, on others by the university professor ? 9. The question is how the peace at any price party proposes to maintain the national honor in the face of deliberate affront. 10. What will be left for the war harassed, nay, war crushed peoples after " the captains and the kings depart ? " 11. The poet calls on the lord god of hosts, the " lord of our far flung battle line " to be with us after

> the tumult and the shouting dies,
> the captains and the kings depart.

Fearful lest we become " drunk with sight of power," he offers the prayer, " thy mercy on thy people, lord." 12. Today before the columbia club ex president taft will speak on the subject of the enforcement of peace. 13. The ex president of the club, dr. james r. howell, ph.d., read a paper entitled " the enforcement of peace." 14. The simple definition is this : over head cost is the general undistributed cost of a business. 15. An often quoted definition of patriotism is that it is the last refuge of a scoundrel. 16. Our favorite pastime during our residence in that commodious, substantial, ugly, old mid victorian mansion was theatricals in the attic, a place which we knew as " overhead in the garret," a name that seemed to us quite as distinctive, as peculiar to that one locality, as stratford on avon or as wells next the sea. 17. The following resolution was presented :

whereas, the work of the finance committee has been painstaking, laborious and highly satisfactory in result, be it therefore

resolved, that a vote of thanks be extended to the members of the committee.

18. Have you read thompson's "city of dreadful night"? or kipling's prose sketch by the same name? If so, you know what I mean when I say that I, too, have entered the city of dreadful night. 19. It is correct to print in roman type instead of italic certain shortened easily recognizable titles, e.g., gibbon's roman empire. 20. Many italian peasants come to america.

Exercise 2

In these sentences make any necessary or desirable changes in the use of capitals or in the treatment of compound words.

1. The verbs *galvanize* and *pasteurize* are fully accredited ; my wonder is, will *fletcherize* at any time in the future enjoy an equally assured position ? 2. We had to send speedily for the doctor, that we realized ; but where to turn in this new, bewildering city where we knew nobody ? Setting forth, confused, timid, in a panic, I was assisted by fortune, for on the door plate of the apartment opposite I read, " herbert ross, m.d." I turned again into our rooms and gasped out, " o sister, doctor ross lives just opposite ; do call him ! " 3. The picture represented fortune and her revolving wheel. 4. Of all our theaters the lyric theater is the newest and finest. 5. There are several methodist churches here ; we can attend the largest, the centenary methodist church, or a smaller one near by, whichever you choose. 6. Let us turn in our distress to him whose aid never fails us. 7. And Jesus bade the daughters of jerusalem that they should not weep for him. 8. I am reading a book by a french scholar on the advancement of science among teutonic peoples. 9. It was the young marquis de lafayette. 10. Some where in this book you will find clearly outlined the plan adopted by count von moltke. 11. The president of the united states is the scholar in public life, — a man who has the degree of doctor of philosophy and other academic degrees, who has been college professor and university president, and who was governor of an important state when he was elected president. 12. Then did king charles learn how potent is that divinity that doth hedge a king. 13. The banquet of the civic league will occur on labor day, september third, at six p.m. 14. I wish to learn more about philosophy and philosophers ; therefore I am electing philosophy a this term. 15. I myself enjoyed most our journey up the river rhine. 16. The exposition, known as the white city, lay on the shore of lake michigan. 17. The eads bridge is a steel arch bridge constructed by

james b. eads across the mississippi river at st. louis. 18. We set out in the *city of new york* upon the journey that was to take us eventually through eastern lands and seas to the heart of the orient, and homeward by way of the pacific and the states of our own great northwest. 19. The state of minnesota is a north central state. 20. Yes, guatemala is in northern central america. 21. The fourteenth century is the first of two golden ages in english literature ; we speak of it as the age of chaucer. 22. The poetry of the chaucerian school stands midway between the middle ages and the modern. 23. Dante is the great spokesman of the middle ages. 24. We shall expect you to visit stonecliff sometime this winter; our winter sports here are delightful; everybody enjoys them. 25. As if from my subconsciousness suddenly emerged the homely saying that I had given up trying to recall : don't swap horses in midstream. 26. Among english speaking peoples we must stand without wavering as the anti militarists, the anti imperialists ; we must withstand all demands for great armament and for empire. 27. The old german shopkeeper, hitherto engrossed completely in his books, now found a friend in the bright young newspaper dealer across the way. 28. The train carried seventy five ten ton cars. 29. This 16 candle power lamp is too dim. 30. This beauty loving boy goes out as a seaman, his work the roughest kind of boat painting ; by his mates he is known as " the dauber." 31. He is a fine type of working man, an expert tool maker. 32. He is an iron tool maker. 33. Her great grandfather, her grandfather, her father, her brother, and her foster brother have all fought in defense of their country ; more over she is daughter in law of an ex attorney general, and wife of a present cabinet officer ; hers is a distinguished line. 34. Any how, nine tenths of this is pure fabrication, spread by the anti administration party ; I might even say ninety nine hundredths. 35. The much heralded pan hellenic dinner occurred last night. 36. He is an anglophile ; he works assiduously to establish closer anglo american bonds. 37. The long hoped for appearance of a first rank states man has been too long deferred. 38. Never the less, one must learn to depend on one self ; one can

not go on finding everything miraculously done for him. 39. The life of the emperor augustus extended from 63 b.c. to 14 a.d. 40. I was on my way to the post office. 41. He met me on the post office steps. 42. Locomotives quadrupled their power, until in 1882 the cost of rail way transportation had been reduced from three and one half cents to one half a cent per ton mile.

Exercise 3

Use the following words within (not at the beginning of) sentences in both capitalized and uncapitalized form. Be ready to explain why you use the form you do.

nature (i.e., the universal system), post office, president, presidency, club, navy, school, spring (the season), canal, India, avenue, main street, empire, algebra, doctor, state (political division), coast, pacific, church, building, prayer, sonnet, fifty-third, war, psalm, platonic, treaty, congress, association, democracy, king, department, freshman, clerk, philosophy, ocean, bay, city, river, east, world, ages, square (noun), fourth, day, park, chapter, century, preface, acting (adjective), colonel, army, republican, assistant, bank, fleet, battle, committee, court, gospel, declaration, zone, government, governor, independence, survey, naval, library, national, chapel, saint, island, north, university, students, divinity, parliament.

Exercise 4

Use the following words or phrases in sentences, and decide in each case whether the hyphen should be used to connect the italicized words, or, if not, whether the parts should stand as a single word or as separate words.

a *battle ship*, the *fishing smack*, no *water tight* compartments, a *self starter*, four *super dreadnoughts, every thing* being *open and above board*, with an *open and above board* air, a *right angle*, a *right angled* triangle, a *hail fellow well met* expression, some of the *pro suffrage organizations*, an *all round* man, lying *all around*, the *war bulletin* on the *bulletin board, self same, self appreciation, book maker, book learning, book keeper, business like, side walk, side line, water proof, wind mill, wind fertilized, god son, god fearing, mid summer, mid channel, semi water gas*, sent *post free, post office* rules, at the *post office*, asks a *safe guard*, asks *safe conduct, two fold*, a *two bagger, post bellum* days, *post Revolutionary* days, a *post script, where ever, volta meter, volta electro meter, in as much*, it is *all right*, the thing *itself, machine gun, siege gun*, a *motor driven* boat, *each other, none the less, hair splitting, artillery man, tooth brush*, the *English and French speaking members, tailor made.*

Exercise 5

1. In what way or ways could you divide the following words if they should come at the end of a line? Explain why you decide as you do. Point out any in which you would avoid division.

monogamy, coalesce, remonstrate, trickling, treacle, pugnacious, treat, smuggled, architect, archenemy, momentous, evaporated, helped, pamphlet, neither, eighteen, processes, Britannica, fluctuation, double, reiteration, postponement, earnest, telling, helping, inconclusive, affair, chemise, chemical, ratable, amorphous, echo, donkey, dogma.

2. Glancing through any of your textbooks, copy the first twenty instances that you find of words divided with the hyphen at the end of the line.

(This assignment may be made definite by the teacher.)

What principle has governed the printer's word division in each case? Would you have divided the word so, or would you have tried, by slightly rearranging the spacing, to make some other division possible? Why?

CHAPTER SIX

SPELLING

The present practice confused

107. English spelling is full of pitfalls for the unprepared. It is almost true, as Professor Child once complained — at least for a large number of words — that "any particular individual spelling is likely to be more rational" than the established system. We have only to glance at *mere, dear, deer, weir, bier* to realize that there are many symbols to one sound, or at *bough, bought, rough, though, through* to see that there are many sounds for one symbol; we know to our confusion that words like *honor* (*honour*), *plow* (*plough*), *controller* (*comptroller*), *clue* (*clew*) may have more than one form.

Reasons for this confusion

This chaos is easily accounted for by the composite nature of the English vocabulary, derived chiefly from the parent Anglo Saxon and in part from the Norman French used by the upper classes and by authors in England for two centuries after the Conquest (1066) — derived, in other words, from two languages that were very different in their phonetic systems and their methods of spelling. Moreover, English has shown a tendency to cling to forms that no longer represent the actual sound; thus *honour* is retained, for the most part

in England, though no one now pronounces the word with the accent on the second syllable, as did the medieval Englishmen who borrowed the word from the French. The chaos has grown with the adoption of new variants to form parallels with already existing variations and to indicate origins often imagined rather than real; *candor*, for example, though direct from the Latin *candor*, and spelled with the *-or* in the seventeenth century, was given in the eighteenth century the doublet *candour*, which brought the word into conformity with the *honor-honour* class and suggested a French derivation.

These inconsistencies were long since crystallized by printing and by the dictionaries. Efforts to correct them have been made at various times from the Elizabethan period on; in the eighteenth century a general tendency to drop the *u* from all the *-our* words "made distinct headway," according to Professor Lounsbury, "and might have accomplished everything had it not met the powerful opposition of Dr. Johnson." Indeed, Dr. Johnson's Dictionary, published in 1755, though it was a mighty power for uniformity, gaining "practically the position of a court of final appeal," nevertheless did much to counteract the movement towards simplification and thus became in some degree a source of the difficulty of modern spelling. On the other hand, the work of Noah Webster, who published his Dictionary in 1828, secured for the United States a simpler orthography than that which prevails in

England; for instance *honor*, "under the lead of Noah Webster," as the New English Dictionary notes, has been generally accepted in this country.

Work of simplified spelling societies

The simplified spelling societies in the United States and in England are attempting gradually to free us from what has been called "an orthography which defies the main object for which orthography was created"; their effort is to replace many forms, tolerated only because they are familiar, by phonetic forms, which, though different, are not less truly good English.

But reform is not made in a day; and meantime we cannot wait idly — for spell we must, and spell correctly. The time has passed when a man could write a word in any form that occurred to him. Once, it is true, no less a person than Sir Philip Sidney, whom nature made scholar and poet as well as man at arms, signed his own name, it seems, "Sidnei," "Sydney," and "Sidney," and his uncle Leicester, we are told, used as many as eight different signatures; certain it is that Sir Henry Sidney put up with such a servant-secretary for young Mr. Philip as any modern master would have set at other tasks after one glance at the account book:

At Oxforde

Itm for a paire of duble solde showes for M^r^ Philippe xx^d^
Itm for mendinge M^r^ Philipps duble taffeta coate and for makinge his blewe streked canvas dublette mete for him xvi^d^
Itm for Yncke i^d^
Itm for thred to sowe with ii^d^

This was, however, more than three hundred years ago. Now standards are changed. As early as Civil War days, in fact, if a poor speller was forced into print with all his imperfections on his page, he felt himself obliged to admit and apologize for his ignorance, as did Matthew Vassar, the uneducated but enlightened founder of Vassar College; and indeed his interesting journal and letters bear out his frank statement that he had the power "scarcely to read or write":

To Professor Edward Youman, March 8, 1861. . . . I shall allways be verry happy to hear from you.

Tuesday November 3d, 1863. Election this day — Voted Republican tickitt.

Tuesday Nov 23d. 1863. Tip taken quick sick last night with Applexy.

Tuesday Dec. 15, 1863. Doct. Babcock calld at my office this P.M. when he again opened the subject of "Appointments" in the College and observd that he had been considering over the matter of the Lybrairian" and Genl Agent for the collection & buying of Books and he thot he could fill that plan to *sattisfaction* and would accept the appointment as Lybrian for *one half* the sallaries we paid our Professors. . . . He remarked that he thot probibly the First B Church would give him a call to the Pastorship.

As the recent editor of these letters reminds us, Mr. Vassar shared this weakness with as illustrious a man as George Washington, who — and this is the significant point for us here — recognized his inability and resisted it, steadily, and to marked effect. And yet, even in later years, he made slips like *riffle* (for *rifle*), *latten* (for *Latin*), *oppertunity*, *seperate*, and, as we see from his diary, kept

in 1774 while he was attending the First Continental Congress, he treated proper names in a sufficiently casual manner:

> August 10 Breakfasted at Tylers on Acquiae [Aquia]
> 27 Went to the Barbacue at Accatinck [Accotink]
> October 9 Went to the Presbeterian Meeting in the forenoon.

To realize fully how times have changed, just ask yourself what would be your state of mind should you come across such entries in the diary of President Wilson or ex-President Roosevelt! Today the snap judgment of the world, and this means the world of affairs as well as the world of learning, brands a poor speller as an illiterate; today a man does not spell badly — and apologize; he spells right — or quits.

Suggested methods for poor spellers

If you ask for safeguards against mistake, a few general preventives can be recommended. Observe printed words closely — their length, their form on the page, the relative position of the letters — so that *guard,* once carefully noticed, will always look right to you, and *gaurd* always wrong. Pay careful attention to pronunciation, your own and that of other people, distinguishing between such words as *born* and *borne;* read aloud to yourself as often as possible for the sole purpose of pronouncing each word correctly, giving to each separate syllable its full sound value. Make practical use of what you know of languages that have influenced English words — above all, of Latin: observe and remember, for instance, that *separate* is *se-* (aside) plus

parare (to make ready); and yet be alert for differences, so that your familiarity with German, for example, will not mislead you into writing *schock* for *shock*.

NOTE. — The following general directions for spelling, reprinted from a pamphlet compiled by Miss M. M. H. Thrall of Mount Holyoke College, give additional and more explicit suggestions:

1. Read for a few minutes each day sufficiently slowly to notice the spelling of words.
2. Keep a list of all words which you look up in the dictionary.
3. Write slowly three or four times each word which you look up. Notice how the hand feels as it forms the letters and how the letters look in relation to each other and to the whole word.
4. Pronounce the word so slowly that each syllable is articulated as a separate word. In these syllable-words give full value to initial and final consonants; — in *ac com mo date*, for instance, pronounce distinctly the *m* of *com* and the *m* of *mo*. Give the exact quality of all so-called long and short vowels. Substitute as far as possible for all so-called modified vowels either the long or the short vowel — in *om nip o tent*, for instance, make the second *o* either long or short, not the obscure *o* indicated in the dictionary.

Practise pronouncing exactly the short vowels : *a* as in m*a*t, s*a*t ; *e* as in g*e*t, s*e*t; *i* as in *i*t, w*i*t ; *o* as in *o*n, n*o*t ; *u* as in *u*p, *u*s. The long vowels have the sound of the letters in the alphabet. *ä* is pronounced as in f*a*ther.

5. Associate words springing from the same root. In looking up *stratagem*, notice also *strategy* and *strategic*, and fix in mind the change in vowel. Associate *court, courtier, courteous, courtesy ; opera, operate, operator, operative, operation ; fane, fanatic, fanaticism, profane, profanity, profanation.* Notice if a word is spelled with *ti, si*, or *ci*, and whether or not the same letters are found in allied words. For example, *extensive* helps to fix in mind *extension ; satisfy, insatiable ; transit, transient.*

6. Study, if helpful, the derivation of a word. Acquaintance with the prefixes and suffixes most frequently used will in itself often prevent mistakes. For instance, *per haps* — *per* (by) + *haps* (chance) — loses its significance when spelled *pre* (before) + *haps* (chance). The same perversion takes place when *dis ease* — *dis* (not) + *ease*, or *not at ease* — is spelled *de* (down) + *sease*, a meaningless syllable. It is to be noted that in the present state of the development of the language, letters — with the exception of final *e* — are not arbitrarily dropped from, or affixed to, the beginning or end of a root, a prefix, or a suffix. In *dis ap point* — *dis* (not) + *ad* (towards) + *punctum* (the point) — the first *p* should not be omitted since it represents the *d* of the prefix *ad*. On the other hand, an additional *s* should not be inserted after the *dis*, as if the original word were *sappoint*. The spelling *dissapoint*, so frequently found, represents the type of mistake which may easily be avoided.

List of Words often Misspelled

108. In the following list of words frequently misspelled the parts in which error ordinarily occurs are printed in bold face type.

Words often misspelled

academy
accept, except [1]
accidentally
accommodate
across
address (pronounce address')
adjacent
{ **ad**vice (noun)
{ **ad**vise (verb ; see **110**)
aeroplane
affect, effect [1]
{ **ai**sle (the *aisle* of a church)
{ **i**sle (*island*)
all right (never *alright*)
allege
allude, elude [1]
already (but *all ready*)
{ **al**tar (*part of church*)
{ **al**ter (*to change*)
amount
amphitheater (see *theater*, **109**)
analyze
analysis
{ **an**gel
{ **an**gle (*corner*)
apart
apology

[1] See these words in the list of misused words **(6)**.

apparatus
arctic
argument
arise
arouse
arrange
arrive
{ ascend, ascent
{ assent
athletic
auxiliary
baccalaureate
balance
believe (see **111**, *1*)
benefit, benefited
{ born (*given birth to:* He was *born* in 1900. *O* as in *orb.*)
{ borne (*carried:* a log *borne* by two men. *O* as in *no.*)
boundary
{ breath (noun)
{ breathe (verb)
business
{ canon (*law, code; church official,* etc.)
{ cannon (*a gun*)
{ canyon (*a gorge;* Spanish *cañon*)
{ capital (adjective, *chief*)
{ capital (noun, *chief city, wealth,* etc.)
{ capitol (*statehouse,* especially the one at Washington)
censor, censure
census
{ choose (present tense)
{ chose (past tense)
{ coarse (adjective)
{ course (noun)
column
{ commit
{ committee
{ comparative
{ comparison
{ complement (*what completes or is complete*)
{ compliment (*a commendatory expression*)
concede (see **111**, *2*)
conducive
{ consul[1] (*government official*)
{ council (*advisory body*)
{ counsel (*advice; adviser(s); to advise*)
{ council(l)or[1] (*member of a council*)
{ counsel(l)or (*adviser*)
corollary
correlate (*con* + relate)
criticize (see **110**), criticism
{ current (of a river; *current* opinion)
{ currant (*a fruit*)
{ deceased (*dead*)
{ diseased (*sick*)
deceive (see **111**, *1*)
definite
deity
{ descent
{ dissent
describe
{ desert (*a waste*)
{ dessert (*course of a meal*)
desperate (though *despair*)
{ device (noun)
{ devise (verb; see **110**)

[1] See these words in the list of misused words (**6**).

diary (*journal*)
diphtheria (pronounced *dif-*)
disappear
disappoint
{ disciple
{ discipline
dissipate
divide
doctor
{ earnest (*serious*)
{ Ernest (proper name)
effect (see *affect*)
eighth
embarrass
{ emigrant
{ immigrant [1]
etc. (not *ect.*; cf. *et cetera*)
exaggerate
{ excel
{ excellent
except (see *accept*)
exercise (see **110**)
existence
extraordinary
fascinate
finally
forbear (*refrain from*)
forbid
forceful
forefather, forehead, foresee, foretell } *fore-* here means *before*
foreign
forlorn
formally
formerly
{ forty
{ four
{ fourteen
gases
gauge (*gage* now preferred; see **109**)
genealogy
government
grammar
grievous
guard
height
hemisphere (see *sphere*)
heroes (see **113**, *9*)
{ hinder
{ hindrance
homogeneous
humorous
hypocrisy
imaginary
immediately
incident, incidence [1]
incidentally [1]
independent
infinite
infinitesimal
{ ingenious (*clever*)
{ ingenuous (*frank*)
insistence
iridescent
irresistible (see *resistance*)
isle (see *aisle*)
{ its (possessive adj.: *its* cause)
{ it's (contraction of *it is*)
itself (not *it's self*)
keenness
knowledge
laboratory
labyrinth
{ later
{ latter
lavatory

[1] See these words in the list of misused words (**6**).

lead (in *lead pencil*)
led (*conducted*, past tense of *lead*)
library
license
lightening (participle)
lightning (*discharge of electricity*)
literature
loath (adjective, see **109**)
loathe (verb)
loneliness
loose (adjective)
lose (verb)
maintenance
mantel (*shelf over a fireplace*)
mantle (*cloak*)
marriage
massacre
meanness
meant
messenger
metallurgy
mischief
mischievous
misspell
mistake
monastery
murmur
mystery
necessary
noticeable
obedient
occasion
occur
occurrence
omission
omit
omitted
operate
opportunity
parallel
partner
perform
phenomena
physician
physiology
psychology
plain (*clear; level stretch of land*)
plane (*level surface; plane geometry, plane of thought*)
playwright (not *-write;* cf. wheel*wright*, etc.)
pneumonia
pore (to *pore* over a book)
pour (to *pour* out water)
possess
practice (noun)
practise (verb)
precede (see **111**, *2*)
proceed (see **111**, *2*)
prefer
preference
prejudice
preparation
principal (*the most important; -al* is an *adjective* ending.)
principle (*guiding rule*)
privilege
professor
pronunciation (not *pronounciation*)
prophecy (noun)
prophesy, prophesied, etc. (verb)
prove
psychology (see *physiology*)
pursue

quiet
quite
really
receive (see **111**, *1*)
recommend
reference
reparation
repetition
resistance (see *irresistible*)
restaurant
rifle
sacrilegious (*sacer* + *legere*, to gather, pick up ; not *sacreligious*)
safety
salary
secretary
seize (see **111**, *1*)
separate
siege (see **111**, *1*)
sieve (see **111**, *1*)
similar
sophomore
speak
speech
specimen
sphere (pronounce *sfēr*)
stationary (*fixed in place*)
stationery (*writing materials*)
strategy
stretch
superintendent
syllable
symmetry
synonym
tariff
their (*of them*)
there (*at that place*)
they're (contraction of *they are*)
therefore (*consequently*)
therefor (*for that*)
till, until
to (preposition)
too (adverb)
two (numeral)
tragedy
trifle
truly
typical
until (see *till*)
vengeance
village
villain
visible
wave (in *sea waves, to wave the flag*)
waive (in *to waive* an argument)
welfare
woman
women
writer
writing
written

Proper Names

Allegheny
Austen, Jane
Britain (the British Empire)
Briton (a native of the British Empire)
Brittany (a province in France)
Cincinnati
Connecticut
Eliot, George
February
Jonson, Ben
Johnson, Dr. Samuel

Macaulay
Malory, Sir Thomas
Mississippi
Niagara
Pennsylvania
Spencer, Herbert
Spenser, Edmund
Thackeray
Tuesday
Wednesday

Words with variant forms

109. The words in this list have two forms; the one here given is recommended.

abridgment
acknowledgment
almanac
ambassador
analyze
anemia
arbor
archeology
ardor
ascendent
assize
ax
bark (*a vessel*)
behavior
boulder
bun
caliber
candor
catalog
center
check
clamor
clue
color
controller
councilor
counselor
criticize
cue
cyclopedia
dependent
deposit
develop
development
dike
distil
draft
dulness
enclose (or *inclose*[1])
encumbrance
encyclopedia
endeavor
envelop
epaulet
esthetic
ether
favor
fetid
forebear (*ancestor*)
fiber
flavor
fulfil
gage (i.e., *standard*)
gaiety
gelatin
gild
gipsy
glamor
glycerin
goodby

[1] Both authority and practice seem to be about evenly divided.

gray
harbor
harken
honor
hypotenuse
indorse
inquire
instalment
instil
jeweler
judgment
kidnaper
labor
license
lightning (*discharge of electricity*)
liter
loath (adjective)
maneuver
meager
medieval
meter
mold
moult
mustache
neighbor
niter
odor
offense
omelet
oneself
paraffin
patronize
pigmy
plow
program
prolog
reconnoiter
rumor
saber
savior
savor
scepter
skilful
subpena
succor
syrup
theater
tranquilize
trousers
tumor
valor
vapor
vender
whisky
wilful
woolen

110. The following words represent a group commonly spelled with *ise* in the United States (some of them with *ize* in England):

Words spelled with *ise* or *ize*

advertise
advise
chastise
comprise
compromise
despise
devise
disfranchise
disguise
enterprise
excise
exercise

franchise	rise
improvise	supervise
merchandise	surmise
revise	surprise

Practice of Simplified Spelling Board

The Simplified Spelling Dictionary (Vizetelly) gives *z* in most of these words, e.g., *advertize, rize, surprize.*

111. Some words present difficulties on account of the combination or order of the vowels they contain.

Words containing *ei* or *ie*

1. Words containing **ei** or **ie**, — pronounced as *e* in h*e*. With verbs of more than one syllable, such as *achieve, believe, deceive,* the following observations may assist memory. If the derived noun ends in *eption* (as *deception,* from *deceive*) the combination of vowels in the verb begins with *e*: "*Eption* cannot come from *ie.*" Also the word *Celia* may be taken as a guide: if *c* precedes the two vowels, *e* follows the *c,* as in *Celia* (de**ceive**); if *l* (or any other letter) precedes them, *i* follows that letter, as in *Celia* (bel**ieve** ach**ieve**, repr**ieve**). For monosyllables the rule holds with a few exceptions: *ceil* (*ceiling*); *grieve, piece, siege, wield,* etc. — EXCEPTIONS: *leisure, seize, weird.*

NOTE. — The American Philological Association recommends *achiev, deceiv, griev,* etc.

Words ending in *ceed, cede,* or *sede*

2. Words ending in **-ceed, -cede,** or **-sede.** — There are but three words ending in *ceed* (*exceed, proceed, succeed*) and one only in *sede* (*supersede*). — (The Simplified Spelling Board recommends *excede, procede, succede.*)

3. Words ending in **-able** or **-ible**. Such words should be observed carefully in reading, for no useful rules for their spelling can be formulated. Some of these words in common use are: **Words ending in *-able* or *-ible***

-able [1]

agreeable
amenable
bearable
breakable
changeable
chargeable
comfortable
commendable
debatable (or *debateable*)
eatable (but *edible*)
excusable
forgetable (or *forgettable;* see **113**, *4*)
forgivable
indispensable
insufferable
likable (or *likeable*)
lovable
manageable
passable
peaceable
perishable
preferable
regrettable (or *regretable;* see **113**, *4*)
salable (or *saleable*)
suitable
tenable
tolerable
traceable
unbearable
unmistakable
unnamable (or *unnameable*)
unspeakable
valuable
wearable

-ible [1]

admissible
audible
comprehensible
contemptible
convertible
credible
edible (but *eatable*)
eligible
flexible
forcible
incorrigible
indefensible
inexpressible
infallible
intelligible
invincible
irresistible
legible
perceptible
permissible

[1] For *-able, -ible,* the American Philological Association recommends *-abl, -ibl.*

plausible	susceptible
possible	tangible
responsible	terrible
sensible	visible

NOTE. — Observe that final *e* is regularly dropped before the suffix beginning with a vowel, unless it is retained to preserve the soft sound of *c* or *g* before *a*, as in *peaceable*, *changeable*: it is not necessary to retain or insert *e* for this reason before *i*: *intelligible*. See **113**, 6.

Abbreviations of names of states, etc.

112. The following list contains the proper abbreviations of the names of states, territories, etc., according to the United States Style Book. If no abbreviation is recognized, the full name is given. (For proper use of abbreviations, see **135**.)

Ala.	La.	Oreg.
Alaska	Mass.	P. I. (Philippine Islands)
Ariz.	Md.	P. R. (Porto Rico)
Ark.	Me.	Pa.
Cal.	Mich.	R. I.
Colo.	Minn.	S. C.
Conn.	Miss.	S. Dak.
D. C.	Mo.	Samoa
Del.	Mont.	Tenn.
Fla.	N. C.	Tex.
Ga.	N. Dak.	Utah
Guam	N. H.	Va.
Hawaii	N. J.	Virgin Islands of the United States[1]
Idaho	N. Mex.	
Ill.	N. Y.	Vt.
Ind.	Nebr.	W. Va.
Iowa	Nev.	Wash.
Kans.	Ohio	Wis.
Ky.	Okla.	Wyo.

[1] The name officially recognized by the Post Office Department, 1917.

Rules for Spelling Derivative Forms of Words

113. The following rules govern the spelling of derivative forms:

Rules for spelling derivative forms

1. Words ending in more than one consonant usually take suffixes without change: *pump, pumping, pumped; approach, approaching, approachable.*

Words ending in two or more consonants

EXCEPTION: *skill, skilful* or *skillful; skilful* generally preferred. (So *will, wilful* or *willful; full, fulness* or *fullness.*)

2. Words of one syllable ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel double the consonant before a suffix beginning with a vowel: *get, getting; bat, batted; run, runner; man, mannish.*

Words of one syllable

3. Words of one syllable containing two vowels (*feel, hope*) do not double the last consonant before a suffix beginning with a vowel: *feel, feeling; deal, dealing; flout, flouting; hope, hoping* (see rule *6* below).

4. Words of more than one syllable, if accented upon the last syllable, follow rules *2* and *3* above.

Words of more than one syllable

Words ending in a single consonant preceded by a single vowel double the consonant: *refit, refitting; regret, regretting, regrettable; occur, occurrence.*

EXCEPTIONS. — Note, among other exceptions, *regretable* (variant spelling) and *forgetable* (usual spelling, *forgettable* being a less common variant).

NOTE. — If in the derived form the accent shifts to a syllable before the last, the consonant is not doubled: *refer, reference.*

Words ending in a single consonant (or a single consonant followed by final *e*) and having two vowels in the final syllable do not double the consonant: *repeat, repeatable, repeating, repeated; volunteer, volunteering; disappear, disappearance; complete, completed, completing.*

5. Words of more than one syllable accented upon any other syllable than the last as a rule do not double the final consonant before a suffix: *benefit, benefited, benefiting; combat, combating, combatant; marvel, marveling, marvelous.*

EXCEPTIONS: *humbug, humbugged; handicap, handicapped;* etc.

NOTE. — If in the derived form the accent shifts to the last syllable of the original word, the consonant may be doubled: *tranquil, tranquillity* (but *civil, civility*). — The *l* in such words as *marvel, travel* may be doubled before a suffix beginning with a vowel: *traveller, travelled, marvelled,* etc.; this spelling is the common one in England. — A few words ending in *c* preceded by a single vowel add a *k* before taking a suffix beginning with a vowel, in order to preserve the hard sound of *c*: *traffic, trafficking; mimic, mimicked; frolic, frolicked* (but *frolicsome*).

Silent *e* dropped

6. Silent *e* is usually dropped before a termination beginning with a vowel: *acknowledge, acknowledging; awe, awing; recite, recitation; hope, hoped; grace, gracing; love, lovable; rogue, roguish; race, racy.*

EXCEPTION. — A few words retain the silent *e* in this situation: *seeing, shoeing, hoeing, dyeing, singeing, mileage, changeable, traceable, agreeable,* etc. In most cases this is to retain the proper consonant sounds, or to avoid confusion with other words, as *singing, singeing; dying, dyeing.*

7. Final *e* preceded by a consonant is usually retained before a termination beginning with a consonant: *polite, politeness; grace, graceful; waste, wasteful; taste, tasteless; revenge, revengeful; vague, vagueness* (*u* silent). **Silent e kept**

EXCEPTIONS. — *Abridgment, acknowledgment, judgment, lodgment* are more common than the variants *abridgement, acknowledgement, judgement, lodgement;* in other words, final *e* is usually dropped when preceded by *dg.*

A few words (such as *wise, whole*) drop final *e* before certain terminations beginning with a consonant: *wholly, wisdom,* etc. (but *wisely*).

NOTE. — *True, argue,* etc. drop the *e* before a suffix beginning with a consonant : *truly, argument;* in *vaguely, vagueness* the *e* is retained because the *u* is silent.

8. Final *y* following a consonant is changed to *i* before a termination not beginning with *i: specify, specification, specifies; pity, pitiful; modify, modifiers; busy, business, busier.* If the addition begins with *i,* the *y* remains unchanged: *play, playing; specify, specifying.* **Final y**

NOTE. — A few verbs which end in *ie* change *ie* to *y* before *-ing : lie, lying; die, dying; vie, vying.* (The *i* becomes *y,* the silent *e* is dropped.)

9. The plural of most nouns adds *s* or *es* to the singular. Note the following special cases: **Plural of nouns**

Nouns ending in *y* following a consonant change *y* to *i* and add *es* (in accordance with *8*): *spy, spies; ferry, ferries; country, countries* (but *valleys, journeys,* where the *y* follows a vowel).

Nouns ending in *o* following a vowel add *s*: *folios.* Some of those ending in *o* following a consonant

add *es*, some *s*; observe general practice, and in particular the following words, often misspelled: *embargoes, heroes, mosquitoes, negroes, potatoes, torpedoes; dynamos, pianos, solos.*

Proper names usually add *s*: the *Murphys*, the three *Marys*.

Words used as such, letters, figures, symbols, etc., use *'s* (apostrophe *s*): two *no's*, three *7's*.

Genitive (possessive) of nouns

10. The genitive (possessive) of most nouns ends in *'s* (apostrophe *s*). In the following special cases the preferable practice is recorded.

If the nominative singular already ends in *s* (or *x* or *z*, that is, in an *s* sound), the genitive singular ends in *'s*, if the noun is a monosyllable, or is accented on its last syllable: *James's* trunk, *Fox's* latest book, *Montross's* family. If the noun is of two or more syllables, the last unaccented, the ending may be either *'s* or the apostrophe alone, as a sign of the case: the *duchess's* carriage, the *duchess'* carriage.

When the nominative plural ends in *s*, as is usual, the genitive plural has an apostrophe after the *s*: the *soldiers'* families.

CHAPTER SEVEN

PREPARATION OF MANUSCRIPT AND CORRECTION OF PROOF

114. The author is wise who bears in mind the compositor, if his manuscript is being prepared for publication, and accordingly arranges his material in unmistakable and uniform fashion. Probably the most needed warning is against inconsistency. In all matters of "style," as the publisher uses the term — in punctuation, capitalization, spelling of words concerning which usage is divided, and similar points — and in general method of arrangement, *be consistent.* The cost of nonuniformity is the time of the compositor, of the copyreader, and of the proofreader, and the time and money of the author.

The following special directions should be carefully followed.

115. Use a reasonably heavy white paper, unruled. **Paper unruled and uniform in size**

116. Use paper of one size throughout. The standard business size, eleven inches by eight and one half, is recommended.

117. Copy should be typewritten unless there is excellent reason to the contrary. First sheets, not carbon copies, should be sent to the printer. **Copy typewritten**

NOTE. — If the copy is written by hand it should always be in ink ; a line should be drawn under every *u* and above every *n* to distinguish the two unmistakably ; the period should be enclosed in a circle, to differentiate it from the comma ; the colon should be enclosed in a circle to distinguish it from the semicolon ; the hyphen should be made thus (=) to distinguish it from the dash.

Only one side of paper to be used

118. Write on one side only of the paper. This rule is never to be disregarded.

Margins Position of title

119. Preserve even and generous margins at the left and at the top of each page. Place the title about two inches below the upper edge of the first page, and about an inch above the first line of the text proper.

Spacing

120. Separate the lines of the text by about half an inch. Do not crowd material at the bottom of a page.

121. When possible, begin a page with a new paragraph.

Indentation for paragraphs

122. Indent clearly and evenly the first lines of paragraphs, or items of parallel importance in a list or outline. If the paragraph is numbered, the number is part of the text of the paragraph, and begins on the paragraph line.

No half-filled lines within the paragraph

123. Leave no line of a paragraph partly blank except the last. If a break in the thought seems to occur at any point, either the transition between sentences is faulty, or there is need for a new paragraph. A blank half line does not remove the difficulty.

124. If any part of the text (e.g., quoted matter) is to be set up in type smaller than that used for the

rest of the text, mark it by such means as a vertical line drawn at the left margin or, in typewritten work, by single spacing.

Marking quoted matter for smaller type

125. Be consistent in the method of punctuating and arranging quotations on the page. (For punctuation, see **84**, **86**, **88**.)

Arrangement of quoted matter separate from body of text

The first word of the text resumed after a quotation (prose or poetry) separated from the body of the text should begin at the margin on the following line, unless it begins a new paragraph; if it begins a paragraph, it should be indented to the paragraph line.

126. Verse is to be quoted line by line, precisely as in the original. Whenever more than one line is quoted, separate the quotation from the body of the text by dropping it one line and indenting.

Of quoted verse

127. If small portions of the manuscript are to be transposed, cancel the words to be shifted by drawing a line through them, and write them where they belong, above the line, carefully indicating the point of insertion with a caret. Slight alterations or additions may be made in the same manner. Write corrections in blank spaces, never upon the lines of the copy.

Minor alterations in copy

128. If an insertion of more than one line in length is necessary at any point within the body of a page, write it on a separate sheet, marked "Insert A," and attach it to the sheet on which the addition is to be made; indicate the point of insertion plainly, and add here also "Insert A." Use "B," "C," etc. for additional pages. Attach insertions to a sheet by mucilage or paste; pins are likely to work out.

Insertion of matter within a page

Attach insertions with paste

Arrangement of notes at end of text

129. If notes and other minor additions of considerable length are to follow the body of the text, write them upon separate sheets numbered consecutively with the text; indicate their relation to the text by "Note" or some such word and by a number (preferable to an asterisk or a similar sign) corresponding to a number placed in the text at the point to which the note refers.

Arrangement of footnotes

Insert a footnote immediately below the line of the text in which the reference number is placed, separating it from the text proper by heavy lines drawn entirely across the page above and below it. Let the text continue below the note as if no interruption had occurred. This arrangement insures the correct placing of footnotes by the compositor.

Arrangement for illustrations

130. Drawings, photographs, and the like, intended for illustrations, should be each on a separate sheet bearing the figure or plate number and the name of the publication to which it belongs. The proper place in the manuscript for each illustration should be clearly indicated.

NOTE. — For special directions as to illustrations, authors should consult the style books of publishing houses, and follow scrupulously the instructions that fit their special needs; see, for example, *Manual for Writers*, University of Chicago Press, 1913, Ch. IX, "Illustrations."

Treatment of proper names, foreign words, etc.

131. Proper names, foreign words, technical terms, etc., should be carefully verified, legibly written (if not typewritten), and accurately marked to show proper capitalization, punctuation, accents, etc.

132. See that all necessary parts of the manuscript are furnished the printer; do not overlook title page or table of contents; do not omit preface, index, etc., if these parts are necessary. If an index is to be included, begin to compile it when the page proof comes to hand; make it complete and accurate, keeping the needs of the future user constantly in view.

Preparation of title page, table of contents, index, etc.

NOTE. — It is possible to put the indexing into the hands of experts, recommended by the publisher, who do the work at moderate cost. — For suggestions as to method of indexing, see *Manual for Writers*, University of Chicago Press, 1913, p. 162.

133. Number the pages consecutively. If new pages are inserted after the numbering is completed, give them the number of the page preceding the insertion, followed by the letters *a*, *b*, *c*, etc., in order; three pages inserted between pages 24 and 25 are pages 24a, 24b, 24c. Account for pages removed after numbering by some sign on the preceding page; if pages 33 and 34 are withdrawn, give page 32 the numbers 32–34, or write at the bottom "p. 35 follows."

Consecutive numbering of pages
Numbering of inserted pages
Indication of removal of pages

134. Never roll or fold manuscript. Send it flat to the printer.

Copy to be neither rolled nor folded

Additional Directions

NOTE. — The following points, applicable to all written work, assume particular importance in manuscript that is in preparation for the press.

135. As a rule do not use abbreviations in connected composition. The use of a few, such as *i.e.*,

Abbreviations and contractions to be avoided in general use

e.g., *q.v.*, *etc.*, *viz.*, *a.m.*, *p.m.*, *A.D.*, *B.C.*, is established in writing of utilitarian nature, but is to be avoided in writing that pretends to literary quality. For abbreviations allowable in letters, see **163**.

NOTE. — Abbreviations, especially those relating to publications, such as *vol.*, *chap.*, *ed.*, *p.*, are allowable in footnotes, lists, indexes, and the like.

Contractions, like *don't*, *I'm*, belong only to colloquial writing.

Abbreviations, like &, intended to be so printed, to be marked "follow"

Abbreviations (like & for *and*) should not be used in copy unless they are to be printed; if they are to be printed as written, but are likely to be spelled out by the compositor, they should be marked "follow."

Numbers

136. The following rules govern the use of numbers.

Figures used to number items, pages, houses, etc.

1. Numbers used to mark items in lists, to mark pages, sections, paragraphs, etc., in a book, to mark rooms, houses, or other such locations are expressed in figures.

General rules

The following rules concern numbers occurring in continuous discourse.

Numbers in continuous discourse usually written out

2. As a rule, write out numbers consisting of one or two words, except in very practical discussions.

He donated *seventy* dollars.
I counted just *two hundred.* I strolled down *Twenty-third* Street.

3. As a rule, use figures for numbers consisting of three or more words, in whatever context.

I count 250 ; the secretary counts 252.
It is said that 16,511 emigrants left England at this time.
The car stopped at 125th Street.

Figures for numbers requiring three or more words

NOTE. — Use a comma if clearness requires it after a digit representing thousands (millions, billions) except in dates, page references, etc. (See **85**, NOTE 2.)

4. As a rule, maintain one method consistently throughout a sequence of numbers.

Consistency in treatment of numbers

There were *seventy* abbots, *seven* earls, *forty-one* barons, and some *two hundred and seventy* representatives of shires and towns.
Altogether our school has won *130* firsts, *105* seconds, and *15* thirds in *519* races.

The following special rules take precedence over 2–4.

5. Use figures for all cardinal numbers that refer to numbered objects. (See *1.*) For ordinals used to name streets, see *2, 3.*

Special cases: Figures for numbers referring to numbered pages, rooms, etc.

The reasons given in article *2* (p. *273*) are *1*) the poor character of the officials, and *2*) the indifference of the public.
I left my room at *312* Marrott Street, and registered at the hotel, where I was assigned to Room *1*.
I left the ring in Locker *4*.

6. Use figures for all dates denoting years except in formal social correspondence; as a rule use a figure for the number of the day.

Figures for dates

This occurred on May *9, 1880.*

NOTE. — Either *May 9* or *May ninth* may be used ; *May 9th* is not advisable.

Figures or words for hours of the day

7. Use figures to indicate the hour of the day if *a.m.* or *p.m.* is used or understood; otherwise write out the number, in accordance with *2*, above.

The train is due at *8* p.m., not at *7 : 43.*
Is he expected at *two o'clock* or at *two forty-five?*

Words for any number beginning a sentence

8. Write out any number beginning a sentence, because capitalization of figures is impossible.

Nine hundred and twenty-six men made the charge; *182 returned.*

NOTE. — In general, rearrange a sentence to avoid such a combination of figures and numbers. (See *4.*)

Words for "round numbers"

9. Write out "round numbers," even in a business-like context, as a way of indicating that the number is only approximate.

The committee received at least *twenty-five hundred* belated applications. (BUT : The death list may reach *2000.* — Here *2000* represents an exact, not an approximate, number.)

Sums of money generally treated like other numbers

10. To designate sums of money as a rule follow the practice usual for numbers.

She pledged *fifteen hundred dollars*, I only *twenty-five ;* the lowest pledge was *twenty-five cents.*
The sums received range from *$1* to *$7550.*

NOTE. — Observe the following special rules :

Use of dollar sign

1. Never use the dollar sign in designating a sum less than one dollar.

The cost was *ninety-three cents.* The sums range from *10 cents* to *$10,000.*

Use of figures after decimal point

2. If the sum contains both dollars and cents, as a rule use figures, and the dollar sign; if it consists of one or more dollars, without fractions, use the dollar sign and no decimal point with ciphers.

The total expense was $4.02.
Shall we pay $1 (not $1.00) or $1.50 a plate?

3. In business or legal letters or documents, repeat by figures in parenthesis a sum written out; use either of the two following forms:

The price is fifteen dollars ($15) a hundred.
The price is fifteen (15) dollars a hundred.

Italics
Underlining for italics

137. Words or letters to be set in italics are underlined in manuscript. — The present tendency is toward a sparing use of italics.

The following rules represent accepted usage.

Use of italics
Rarely used for emphasis

1. Do not as a rule italicize for emphasis in ordinary writing. Achieve the desired emphasis by the arrangement of words in the sentence. Italics, however, like boldface and other conspicuous types, may be used to give prominence to rules, important names, etc., in textbooks and similar publications.

NOTE. — Authors may indulge their whims where lesser men may not. Observe, for example, George Bernard Shaw's wide spacing of letters in words for emphasis, after the German fashion (a liberty comparable to Laurence Sterne's use of dashes).

For quoted titles

2. Italicize quoted titles of publications, paintings, etc., or enclose them in quotation marks (see **87**).

Consult *The Heroic Age.* Consult "The Heroic Age."
I read the *New York Times.* I read the "New York Times."

NOTE. — The United States Government *Style Book* authorizes quotation marks; but preferable usage italicizes titles of separate publications or works, using quotation marks for titles of articles included in publications. (See **87**, NOTE.)

For foreign words

3. Italicize foreign words used in an English context if they are still felt to be foreign.

The vote is to be *viva voce*. But: Where can we find a garage [not *garage*] ?

For Latin abbreviations, except the most common

4. Do not italicize abbreviations of Latin words if they are in very common use.

etc., e.g., i.e., vs., viz.

Other Latin words or abbreviations used in reference may be italicized.

circa, c., et al., ibid., idem, loc. cit., op. cit., passim, sic, vide.

Not as a rule for English reference words

5. Italicize *see, see also,* etc., in indexes only; italicize *for* and *read* in lists of errata, variant readings, etc.

For words spoken of as such, but not quoted

6. A word spoken of as such may be italicized, rather than enclosed in quotation marks, to indicate that it is not quoted from any specific context.

"Very" in this sentence is superfluous; in fact, *very* is often superfluous.

Note. — Quotation marks are often preferable, however, in such special cases as *10* in this list of rules.

For letters spoken of as such

7. Italicize letters, etc., spoken of as such.

The letter *n*, the figure *8*.

For scientific names and symbols

8. For scientific names and symbols observe the following directions:

a. Italicize names of species (except in tables).

On that day the seeds of *pectinatus* began to germinate.

b. Italicize names consisting of genus, or initial abbreviations of genus, followed by species, or species and variety, etc. (except in tables).

The *Orchis spectabilis* is the showy orchid. This is the *Viola canina*, var. *puberula*. He observed the *Potamogeton crispus* (or *P. crispus*).

c. Do not italicize names of genera, orders, families, classes, etc., standing alone.

Not for names of orders, families, classes, etc., used alone

This species of Potamogeton is a native of Europe. (So Viola, Orchis, Orchidales, Orchidaceae, Angiospermae ; all in roman type if used alone.)

d. Do not italicize the English forms of scientific names.

Not for the English equivalents

These Potamogetons, these orchids.

e. Avoid italics in medical discussions.

Not for medical terms

In hydrops articuli, employ uniform compression.

f. Italicize names of planets.

For names of planets, chemical elements, mathematical symbols

Jupiter, Ursa Major, Orion.

g. Italicize symbols of chemical elements.

H, O (but H_2O, CO_2).

h. Italicize letters used as mathematical symbols.

The line *CD*, x to the nth power.

9. Italicize (or enclose in quotation marks) names or numbers of vessels, aeroplanes, trains, and the like, except in footnotes, lists, etc.

For the names of vessels, etc.

The *Eastland* (the "Eastland") overturned when moored to the dock.

NOTE. — The United States Government *Style Book* authorizes italics for the names of vessels, docks, airships, etc.

10. In resolutions, italicize *Resolved* but not "Whereas":

For *Resolved* in resolutions

Whereas, It . . . ; therefore be it
Resolved, That . . .

For official titles following a signature

11. In printed signatures, an official title following the name is often italicized.

John Mayer, *Treasurer.*

Not for *jr.*, *sr.*, *Esq.*

NOTE. — Do not italicize "jr.," "sr.," or "Esq." following a name.

Correction of Proof

Galley proof

138. The first proof that the author receives is the revised galley proof, i.e., a long proof taken from the galley and embodying the corrections already made by the proofreader and the reviser who belong to the publishing house staff. If, after making corrections, alterations, and suggestions, the author wishes to see another proof before the type is made up into pages, he marks the galley proof "Send Revise"; he may so mark the whole proof, or any one galley.

Page proof

When the type is made up into pages, page proofs are sent to the author, together with the marked galley proofs; revised page proofs are sent him later if desired. When the page proof is in such form that the author requires no further proofs, he marks it "O.K.," or "O.K. with corrections," or "O.K. with alterations," and returns it, with the galley proofs, to the printer. When he has corrected the proof of the index, which is made up after the page proofs have been received, he has completed the task of proofreading.

Correction of proof

139. The following directions and suggestions for the correction of proof should be carefully heeded.

Promptness

1. Correct proof promptly and return it promptly

to the printer, together with the original copy or the galley proofs, as the case may be.

Regard for proof-reader's queries

2. Do not disregard or simply erase queries made by the proofreaders of the publishing house on the margin of the proof, usually the first galley proof; either write "O.K." if no change is desired, or mark the necessary correction. "Do not write a message on the subject, but simply your decision."

Need of a copyholder

3. To insure precise work on the first galley — the most difficult portion of the labor — secure the aid of a copyholder, who slowly and distinctly reads aloud the copy, indicating paragraphing, punctuation, capitalization, signs for italics, etc.

Corrections to be made on first galley proofs

4. Make corrections on the first galley proofs; consider later proofs only as means for verification of the correctness of the text, not as opportunities for further correction or alteration.

Alterations in proof to be avoided

5. Do not use the proof sheets for alterations. In theory the copy should not go to the printer until it has been so arranged, verified, normalized in style, etc., that no alterations will be necessary in proof. In practice, a certain amount of alteration is common, for the purpose of embodying material just come to light, or for the purpose of greater consistency in style, but an author should allow himself a very low maximum of change. Alteration after the copy has been set up is charged to the author as such, not counted as correction; moreover it often necessitates extended change in the course of which further compositor's errors may be made, and often results in inconsistency of statement, or roughness of transition.

Alterations, if necessary, to be made on galley proof

6. If alterations must be made, make them in the galley proof, never in the page proof. The only legitimate use of page proof is for testing the correctness of the impression, examining the page headings (running heads) and page numbering, seeing that footnotes, illustrations, and figures are properly placed, and making certain that no line is incomplete, transposed, or omitted, especially from the top or bottom of the page.

Substitution, if possible, to occupy same space as cancelled part

7. When an alteration is necessary, try to substitute for the cancelled part matter that will either occupy exactly the same space, or constitute one or more full new lines. Otherwise the whole succeeding part of the paragraph must be reset by the compositor.

Corrections, etc., to be made in ink

8. Make corrections, alterations, remarks, etc., in ink; pencil marks easily become rubbed and indistinct.

Corrections to be made in margins

9. Make corrections on the margin opposite the line containing the error; indicate clearly the point in the line to which the correction refers. Write no corrections upon the print of the line, or between the lines; such corrections are usually illegible, and are often completely overlooked. Certain marks (carets, spacing marks, etc.) are allowed in the line.

Crowding of corrections to be avoided

10. When corrections are so crowded as to produce confusion, rewrite the faulty passage on the top or bottom margin of the galley if there is room, otherwise on a separate sheet, marking it clearly as a correct version of the passage indicated.

11. Do not transfer corrections to the original copy. Transfer them, however, from the corrected page proof to the duplicate page proof, so that the index may be made up from the final form of the proof.

Corrections to be transferred to duplicate page proof; never to copy

12. Use the following proofreader's marks, understood by all printers.

Proofreader's marks

Insertion or Substitution

∧	Insert here in line what marginal sign indicates
out, see copy	Insert part of copy omitted in proof
⊙	Period
⊙	Colon
=	Hyphen
'	Apostrophe
‘/’ or “/”	Quotation marks, single or double
^{a} or $_{2}$	Letter or figure, superior or inferior (1^{a}, H_2O)
[/]	Brackets
(/)	Parentheses
spell out	Substitute full expression for abbreviation

Cancel the part of the line for which a substitution is to be made. Any letter, word, etc., may of course be put in the margin to be inserted or substituted, the place being marked in the line.

Removal

ℌ Take out, delete.

Cancel the part that is to be removed.

Spacing and Position

⊥	Push down space (lead); space shows
⁀	Close up; no space
⁀ or ∨ or ⁀	Close up more, but leave some space
æ or æ	Print as *æ*
⁀	Delete and close up
V/\	Make spacing even
#	Insert space
space out	Spread words farther apart
⁋	Turn to proper position; upside-down
[or]	Move to left or right, respectively
⌐ or ⌙	Move up or down, respectively
tr.	Transpose[1]
□	Indent one em
‖	Straighten edge of page
≡	Straighten crooked line
center	Put in middle of the page
overrun	Carry over to next line
run in	Bring words together into same line

Paragraphing

¶	Begin a new paragraph here
No ¶	No paragraph

[1] The transposition is indicated in the line thus:

He ⌈good⌉ is.⌋

Type

w.f.	Wrong font (wrong size or style of type)
×	Broken or imperfect type
rom.	Roman type
—— or *ital.*	Italic type
~~ or *b.f.*	Black or boldface type
≡ or *caps.*	Capitals
≡ or *s. c.*	Small capitals
l. c.	Lower case (small letters)
≡	Boldface capitals
≡	Boldface small capitals
≡	Boldface italic

To mark these changes of type within the line, cancel the letters or words in question; it is advisable also under the cancelled part to draw one, two, or three lines, as the case may require.

Cancellation of a Mistaken Correction

stet Restore; let it stand

Put dots under parts cancelled.

Draw a line through any erroneous sign in the margin or in the line.

Proofreader's Query

Qu. or ⓘ Is this correct?

G., *Sp.*, *F.*, etc. Grammar, Spelling, Fact, etc.

CHAPTER EIGHT

LETTER WRITING: THE BUSINESS LETTER

140. Your ability to write a clear, terse, and courteous business letter is a test of your training in the use of English. You are expected to observe not only the principles of grammar and composition, but also certain inexorable conventional requirements.

Preliminary Matters

Paper

141. Use paper of good quality, white (or at least not conspicuously colored), and preferably unruled, with envelopes to match. (For business purposes it is allowable to use the stamped envelopes obtainable at the post office; in this case the paper need match in size only.) Ordinary folio letter paper, a sheet folded once to make four pages, is suitable for any letter, business or social; but for strictly business purposes separate flat sheets are preferred. Such paper comes in a standard business size, eleven inches long and eight and one half inches wide.

Ink

142. Always use black ink.

143. If separate sheets of business paper are

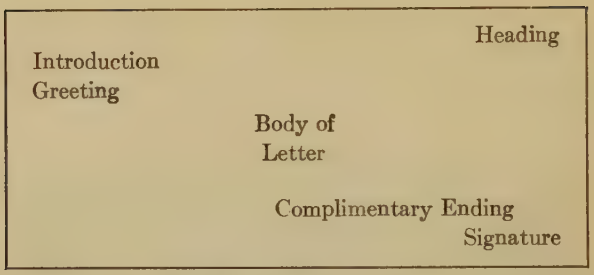
used, never write on both sides of the paper. If the letter cannot be completed on the first page, use another sheet. In this case all pages after the first should be numbered. **Arrangement of pages**

NOTE. — If folio letter paper is used, and the letter requires two pages, write on the first and third pages. If more than two pages are required, write on the pages in their regular order (neither in the order *first, third, second, fourth,* nor in the order *first, fourth, second, third*). Write without turning the folio in different directions. — The convenience of the reader dictates these suggestions, which are generally neglected because other methods seem more convenient at the moment to the writer (who is perhaps without a blotter).

144. Leave a space of one inch, at least, at the top of the page, and a margin of one inch or more at the left. Make indentations further to the right. Take special care to begin a paragraph on a separate line, and to indent it unmistakably. Keep the right-hand edge as regular in appearance as possible. **Margins and indentations**

145. In general, be neat. Legible handwriting, absence of erasures and changes, proper margins and spacing, all contribute to the neatness of a letter. **Neatness Legibility**

146. A business letter contains six distinct parts: (1) the heading, (2) the introduction, (3) the greeting, or salutation, (4) the body of the letter, (5) the complimentary ending, (6) the signature. The position of these parts on the page is indicated in the following letter form. **Divisions**



Punctuation after lines in heading, etc.

NOTE. — Of all lines outside the letter proper, only greeting and complimentary close require final punctuation. (See **151**, **154**.) After all others, practice varies: conservative firms retain marks; many good houses omit them. Those after date and signature are commonly omitted. For convenience, the maximum punctuation is shown here in all letter forms; but either method, consistently followed, is correct.

The Heading

Position

147. The heading consists of the name of the place from which the letter is sent and the date of writing. Never omit either detail. The heading occupies the upper right-hand corner of the page, not too close to the top, and may be arranged on one, two, or three lines.

The writer's address

148. If street and house number as well as city and state are included, they should be written first. The number of the house should be written in figures without any explanatory sign: *17 Chestnut Street* (not *Seventeen Chestnut St.* or *#17 Chestnut St.*).

NOTE. — When the name of the street is a number, it is customary to spell it out, unless it contains more than two parts: 4 West Fourth Street; 127 East Ninety-ninth Street; but 127 East 145th Street. (See **136**, *2, 3.*)

149. The date should consist of the name (not the number) of the month, followed by the number of the day and of the year, expressed in figures: *June 10, 1916* (not *6/10/'16*). **The date**

NOTE. — Never write out a date in a business letter, as *June ten, nineteen hundred and sixteen.* (This usage is reserved for formal social correspondence.) — Avoid a contraction (e.g., *st, rd*) after the number of the day; write *May 1* (not *May 1st*).

379 Michigan Avenue,
Chicago, Illinois.
June 10, 1916.

NOTE. — For punctuation, see **146**, NOTE; for abbreviation, **163**.

The Introduction

150. The introduction consists of the name and the address of the person or firm to whom the letter is written. It should be placed at a neat distance below the heading of the letter, at the left of the page, beginning at the margin line. It should, if possible, occupy not more than three lines. The name should be written on the first line, the street address, usually indented, on the second line, the names of the city and the state on the third line. If a fourth line is necessary, the name of the state should occupy it alone. Practice as to punctuation and abbreviation varies. (See **146**, NOTE; **163**.) **Position** **Name and address of the recipient**

379 Michigan Avenue,
Chicago, Illinois.
June 10, 1916.

Boston Transcript Company,
324 Washington Street,
Boston, Massachusetts.

Name and address sometimes at end of letter

NOTE. — In dignified business and official correspondence, the name and address of the person to whom the letter is sent, omitted from the beginning of the letter, is placed at the close, below the signature of the writer, and at the left-hand margin. (See **Letter Form 2**, page 273.) — This arrangement is preferable in formal social letters.

The Greeting

Position

151. The greeting (or salutation) is the formal phrase of address immediately preceding the body of the letter. It is written on the line below the introduction, beginning at the margin line.

It usually consists of some one of the following expressions:

Gentlemen:	Ladies:
Sir:	Madam:
Dear Sir(s):	Dear Madam:
My dear Sir(s):	My dear Madam:

My dear Sir* and *Dear Sir

The common American practice is to use *My dear Sir*, etc., for moderately formal address, *Dear Sir*, etc., for less formal.

Observe that the greeting is followed by the colon (or, less frequently, by the colon and dash); also that the first and last words only are capitalized, unless more than one noun is employed, as in "My dear Friends and Fellow Travellers."

NOTE. — The comma follows the greeting in social correspondence. (See note after **166**.)

379 Michigan Avenue,
Chicago, Illinois.
June 10, 1916.

Boston Transcript Company,
324 Washington Street,
Boston, Massachusetts.
Gentlemen:

The Body of the Letter

Position

152. The body of the letter begins below the greeting and somewhat to the right. (See **Letter Forms**, pages 272, 273.)

The composition of the letter

153. In composing the letter, use your knowledge of the general principles of composition. Think carefully over what you have to say, and say it in the shortest, clearest, and most courteous manner possible.

1. Remember, however, that terseness carried too far may seem to be brusqueness and that a regard for

Omission of pronouns, etc.

brevity must never lead to the omission of necessary words. "Yours of May 25 at hand and contents noted; shall send articles ordered promptly . . ." is not sanctioned by good use; write "your letter" for "yours," "is received" for "at hand"; avoid especially the omission of the first personal pronoun. (See **20**, *1*.)

Hackneyed phrases

2. By adopting the natural tone that you would use in speaking, avoid such trite formulas as the following (some of which are very poor English):

Your esteemed favor (for *your letter*)
Came duly to hand, is at hand (for *I received*, etc.)
In reply to same we beg to state[1] (to be omitted)
Enclosed please find (for *I enclose*, or, not so good, *Enclosed find . . . for which please send . . .*)

Unnecessary and trite transitional sentences

3. Feel quite free to omit a formal transitional sentence between the body of the letter and the complimentary close, unless such a sentence is necessary and natural at this point. Transitional formulas become very tiresome, particularly such participial expressions as "Trusting that the matter may be satisfactorily arranged, I remain, . . .," "Thanking you in advance for the favor, I am, ..." Omit the objectionable tag "and oblige" in "Will you kindly attend to the matter, *and oblige*, ..."

Thanking you . . .

. . . and oblige

NOTE. — Above all, use formulas with some respect to sense, if you must use formulas; avoid such senseless combinations as this:

Your remittance will oblige,
I am
Yours faithfully
A. B. C ——.

[1] See **Same** and **State** in the list of misused words, **6.**

4. Errors in grammar, spelling, punctuation, and capitalization are inexcusable. In the business of letter writing especially, it is essential to know how to use *shall* and *will* correctly. It is particularly unfortunate, because of the apparent disrespect involved, to be careless in the spelling of proper names occurring in the letter (and this holds for address and introduction as well as for the body of the letter). Courtesy demands that you observe the names of those to whom you write carefully enough to spell those names correctly.

Grammar, spelling, etc.

Spelling of proper names

The Complimentary Ending

154. The complimentary ending of a letter is the courteous formula immediately preceding the signature. It is written below the last line of the body of the letter, beginning slightly to the right of the middle of the page. The first word only is capitalized, and the expression is followed by a comma. (See **Letter Forms**, pages 272, 273.)

Position

In business letters the usual expressions are:

Yours (very) truly,
Very truly yours,
Yours (very, most) respectfully,
Very (most) respectfully yours,

Yours truly, etc.

Do not omit the word *yours*. Do not abbreviate it (see **163**, *4*).

Yours not to be omitted or abbreviated

Note 1. — For personal letters *Yours (very) sincerely* or *(Very) sincerely yours* is formal; less formal phrases are *Yours cordially, Yours faithfully, Yours affectionately,* etc. Do not omit the *yours*.

NOTE 2. — For business and official letters more elaborate formulas like *I have the honor to be . . .* may be employed, but they must be employed intelligently; the following absurdity closed a formal letter of state, recently published:

I have the honor, Mr. President, to be,
A. B. C——.

General letter forms

Letter Form 1[1]

379 Michigan Avenue,
Chicago, Illinois.
June 10, 1916.

Boston Transcript Company,
324 Washington Street,
Boston, Massachusetts.

Gentlemen:

In response to your letter of June 4, I am submitting my application for the position of superintendent in your press room. I enclose recommendations from other newspaper companies for which I have worked.

Yours truly,

John B. Andrews.

The Signature

Position

155. The signature is the name of the writer, as a rule standing quite alone. It should be so placed

[1] On the punctuation in these forms, see **146**, NOTE. Observe that in **Form 2** the first two lines of the heading, representing an engraved or printed letterhead, are without punctuation. As to the use of abbreviations (*St.* for *Street*, etc.) see **163**.

as to fill out the right-hand end of the line following the complimentary ending. The period is unnecessary. (See **146**, NOTE.)

Letter Form 2[1]

City of Richmond
Department of Public Works
March 27, 1916.

My dear Mr. Connelly:

In compliance with your request of March 26, I am mailing to you under separate cover samples of the new blanks to be used in this department after June 30, 1916. I am also enclosing two card forms which we have decided to use in filing records. I hope the new method will simplify the work of the office.

Very truly yours,
H. M. Fitch,
Secretary.[2]

Mr. J. T. Connelly,
12 Murray Street,
Richmond, Virginia.

Enclosures.[3]

No address to follow signature

Nothing in the way of address accompanies the signature; all necessary information on that score presumably stands at the head of the letter.

[1] For the position of the name and address of the recipient in this form, see **150**, NOTE.

[2] *Secretary* might appear in italics, were the letter printed (see **137**, *11*).

[3] In many offices it is customary to put at the end of a typewritten letter the initials of the dictator followed by those of the stenographer: TBC/AR or TBC.AR.

Title not usual with signature

No title accompanies the signature, except in special cases. A title following the name may indicate the official capacity of the writer (see **137**, *11*) :

Yours very truly,
William Harper, *Treasurer*.

Business signatures of women

NOTE. — Women in signing business letters may add the title to indicate the proper form of address in reply. A married woman may sign as follows :

Catherine O. Welsh (Mrs. John T. Welsh).

The name in parentheses may stand on the line below the signature, at the extreme left.

A widow may sign in this way: (Mrs.) Catherine O. Welsh. An unmarried woman may sign thus : (Miss) Catherine A. Owen.

The Folding of the Letter

The beginning always on the inside of the folded letter

156. Fold the finished letter neatly to fit the envelope easily; see that the beginning of the letter is on the inside of the folded sheet or folio.

Folding folio paper

157. If ordinary four-page letter paper is used, only one fold is necessary. This is made by placing the lower edge of the sheet along the upper edge and pressing down the resulting crosswise crease. (Envelopes of exactly appropriate size can always be purchased with letter paper.)

Placing folio paper in the envelope

NOTE. — Place the letter in the envelope with the fold at the bottom, the beginning of the letter at the top, inside (so that it will be seen at once, right side up, when withdrawn from the envelope, if the envelope is held with the sealed flap facing the recipient).

Folding a single sheet

158. If separate sheets of standard business size are used with the ordinary business envelope (No. $6\frac{1}{4}$, an envelope $6\frac{1}{2}$ inches long and $3\frac{5}{8}$ inches wide)

fold the paper in two directions as follows. Place the lower edge of the sheet about half an inch below the upper edge and crease the resulting fold. Turn one third of the folded sheet from the left toward the right, and crease the fold thus made. Finally turn one third of the sheet as at first folded from the right to the left and crease the fold. Keep edges straight and even.

NOTE 1. — Place the letter in the envelope with the outer third touching the back of the envelope (i.e., the side to be sealed) and the beginning of the letter at the left end of the envelope.

NOTE 2. — A slightly smaller envelope, made especially to enclose in business letters when a reply is requested, is No. 6.

AFTER 5 DAYS RETURN TO
John C. Smith,
146 State St.,
Wilkesville, N.Y.

STAMP

Mr. Frank B. Jones,
2416 Front Street,
Oswego,
Ohio.

The Address on the Envelope

159. The address on the envelope consists of the name of the person to whom the letter is sent, together with his address and any other information necessary to insure the proper delivery of the letter. **Arrangement**

It should be neatly and legibly written and arranged in an orderly manner. The preceding form, which the Post Office Department prints as a model on the cover of the official stamp books, is usually adopted, except for the punctuation. (See **161**.)

NOTE 1. — An acceptable arrangement begins each line following the first at the same distance from the edge as the first line:

Mr. Frank B. Jones,
2416 Front Street,
Oswego,
Ohio.

Form of address proper for married women

NOTE 2. — A married woman is usually addressed by the husband's name preceded by *Mrs.:*

Mrs. John H. Sharp.

A widow is sometimes addressed by her own Christian name followed by the husband's surname, and preceded by *Mrs.:*

Mrs. Margaret Sharp.

Use of *R.F.D.* in addresses

NOTE 3. — When a letter is sent to a region which has rural free delivery, the number of the route should be included in the address:

Miss Myra Livingston,
Farmersburg,
R.F.D. No. 2. Iowa.

Position of title accompanying name

160. If the name of the person to whom the letter is sent is followed by an identifying title, the title should be written on the line below the name. In such cases, to prevent filling too many consecutive lines, the street name and the number may be written either on the third line of the superscription or alone at the lower left-hand corner of the envelope. The latter form of address is shown in the following form.

Possibility of placing street name and number at the bottom, left

Mr. Frank B. Jones,
Superintendent of City Schools,
Oswego,
2416 Front Street. Ohio.

Punctuation of address

161. Good writers now tend to omit marks after all the lines of the address. If punctuation is used, it should consist of a comma at the end of every line except the last, and a period at the end of the last. (Periods, of course, follow any abbreviations used within or at the end of a line.) — Whichever system is adopted, use it consistently.

Miscellaneous Details

Consistency in degree of informality

162. The greeting and the formal ending should correspond in the degree of formality both with each other and with the tone of the letter as a whole. With the very formal *Sir* or *Gentlemen*, *Yours very truly* or *Yours most respectfully*, for example, is appropriate; *Yours most cordially* would be obviously out of place. *Dear Sir* and the somewhat more formal *My dear Sir* are very generally used with *Very truly yours*, etc.

Abbreviations

163. The following points concern abbreviations:

1. Names of states or other geographical divisions, and such words as "Street," "Avenue," may be ab-

Names of states, streets, etc. written out in dignified business letters

breviated in heading, salutation, and outer address, though in the most formal and dignified business correspondence (as properly in all social correspondence) such words are written out in full.

Months written out

2. Names of the months in the heading are not to be abbreviated.

Titles as a rule written out except *Mr.*, *Dr.*, *Esq.*, etc.

3. Titles are not to be abbreviated in the formal salutation, except *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, and *Dr.* "Dear Dr. Briggs" is a correct salutation; "Dear Prof. Howe" or "Dear Col. White" is not proper. In the introduction and in the outer address the use of abbreviated titles is permissible; but the full titles are more dignified. *Mr.*, *Mrs.*, *Dr.*, and *Esq.*, however, are never written out.

***Yours*, etc., not to be abbreviated**

4. Yours, respectfully, etc., in the complimentary ending are never to appear as *Yrs*, *resp'y*.

Avoid *rec'd.*, *inst.*, etc.

5. Abbreviation of words within the body of the letter, such as *Yrs* or *rec'd* for *Yours*, *received*, is in poor taste. Avoid also *inst.*, *ult.*, and *prox.*, for *this month*, *last month*, *next month* in connection with dates; write "Your letter of May 30 is received," not "Yours of the 30th ult. is received"; write "I shall be in New York on the seventeenth of the month" (or "on June 17") not "I shall be in New York on the 17th inst."

Titles

164. Certain customs relating to the use of titles should be observed.

Mr.

1. Mr. is a title for all men who do not use any other special designation, such as *Doctor* or *Professor*. The plural, *Messrs.*, is no longer in common use.

Esq.

Esq., which may follow a man's name as a mark of

respect, is rarely used in the United States. If employed, it must never be in connection with any other title; write "Henry Ball, Esq.," not "Mr. (Dr.) Henry Ball, Esq."

After an introduction containing *Mr.*, or *Esq.*, a proper form of greeting is *Dear Sir.*

Reverend

2. The title *Reverend* is given to clergymen. *Dear Sir* is an appropriate salutation. (See **Honorable, Reverend** in the list of misused words, **6.**)

Dr.

3. The title *Dr.* is given to doctors of medicine, philosophy, law, science, divinity, etc. Never use together the abbreviations *Dr.* and *M.D.* or *Ph.D.*, etc.; write "Hugh French, M.D.," or "Dr. Hugh French," not "Dr. Hugh French, M.D." With *Professor* and *Reverend* abbreviations of academic titles may be used, since they do not repeat the title already used: "Professor Hugh Lawrence, A.M.," "The Reverend C. M. Henderson, Ph.D., D.D."

Honorable

4. The title *Honorable* is prefixed to the name of distinguished city, state, and government officials; the usual salutation is *Sir.* (See **Honorable** in list of misused words, **6.**) For the special titles and proper salutations in addressing high officials of the Government, the Army, the Navy, the Church, etc., the writer should consult authority when the need arises. (See a textbook on business correspondence, or the United States Government *Style Book*, or the New Standard Dictionary, *forms of address* under *form.*)

Enclosures

165. If enclosures are to be made in a letter, the fact should be indicated either by mention in the

body of the letter or by the word *Enclosures*, written near the left-hand margin below the signature. (See **Letter Form 2**, page 273.)

Postscripts to be avoided

166. Postscripts should be avoided. (When one is used, it should be signed with initials.)

Personal letters

NOTE. — In letters pertaining to family and social life, though you follow the same general forms as those belonging to business correspondence, you relax formality to a degree corresponding to the intimacy and cordiality existing between you and the one to whom you are writing.

Informality proper

As a rule, use no formal, full introduction, but only the greeting, which is usually followed by the comma (indicating less formality than the colon). Use an appropriately informal ending formula (see **154**, NOTE 1); never omit *Yours*, however, in *Yours sincerely*, etc.

Thoughtless omission of date and address, or transference of one or both to the end

The heading you should preserve in its complete form (including your address and the date) and at its proper post, the head of the letter; in spite of those who argue that your address is presumably known to your reader and that the date is usually of no importance, you should remember the frequent inconvenience and delay you yourself have endured because of familiar letters received without date or the writer's address, and should accordingly refuse to err in the same way. But if you do choose to neglect the convenience of your reader by transferring the heading to the close, at least transfer it all; do not allow one part to stand at the beginning and the other at the end. The date and the address should always stand together.

Conventional social notes in the third person throughout

Conventional notes in the third person should be modeled on the corresponding engraved forms. The replies to such notes should be expressed in the third person, without lapses into the first person.

APPENDIX

EXERCISES FOR GRAMMATICAL REVIEW

THE exercises that follow are designed to test the student's knowledge of the elements of grammar. They should be used, if notable deficiency is found in the student's practice, in connection with some good dictionary and elementary grammar. Correction of the student's written exercises with explanation and repeated drill should be sufficient in most instances to recall the grammar study of the past. A few important terms are explained in the Grammatical Notes at the end of this Appendix.

Exercise 1

1. Tell to what class the following sentences belong: whether they are affirmative or negative, declarative or interrogative, or exclamatory. In each interrogative sentence, tell whether anything is implied as to the answer expected, and if so, what. Point out subject and predicate in each sentence.

Sentences Kinds

Subject and predicate

1. Color is merely a sensation. 2. Never throw water on blazing oil ! 3. Never throw water on blazing oil. 4. Your work is good. 5. His ability to draw is remarkable ! 6. Neither boy responded. 7. Are they not interested in the plan ? 8. Have they not both elected this

course? 9. Oh, go quickly! 10. Don't you see his danger? 11. Do not be discouraged. Don't you be discouraged! 12. What a beautiful view this is! 13. H_2O is the chemical formula for water. 14. What is the formula for air? 15. The simple microscope is a converging lens of short focus. 16. In all civilized countries a systematic study of terrestrial magnetism is carried on by the government. 17. Other gases have for a long time withstood all attempts at liquefaction by simple methods. 18. That theorem is easy. 19. Do you think so! 20. Such effects are termed afterimages. 21. A verb must agree with its subject in person and number. 22. In Switzerland the toy industry has received great impetus by conditions created by the war. 23. The problems in South America and Mexico will be dealt with in courses added to this department. 24. You have not heard the results of the election, have you? 25. A kind of sea urchin, a marine animal of the class Echinoidea, allies of the starfish, inhabits the shell of the "sand dollar." 26. Legally, the citizenship of a woman follows that of her husband. 27. How did surnames originate? 28. Will you kindly give me the names of the higher institutions of learning in Iowa? 29. The rise of thirty points in this stock, brought about by the events of the war, caused a flurry in Wall Street. 30. What are the facts as to the burden of taxation borne by real estate compared with the burden borne by other forms of property?

2. Write six questions. Put three in a form that shows you expect an affirmative answer; three in a form that indicates nothing as to the character of the answer expected. Frame two questions which imply a negative answer. What is noteworthy in the structure of such a question?

3. Write five exclamatory sentences, varying the form as much as possible. Explain the form of each sentence. Express the same idea in nonexclamatory form and note in each case the necessary change.

4. Point out subject and predicate of each sentence you write in **2** and **3**.

Exercise 2

1. What part of speech is each word in the following selection? **Parts of speech**

Oh, here is the article I told you of! I shall read it aloud.

"First to climb Mount Geikie in Alberta, B.C., are two Americans, one of whom, Dr. Andrew J. Gilmour of this city, returned yesterday with his story of the conquest of the frozen heights. His companion was Professor Edward Holway of the University of Minnesota.

"Their common love of mountain climbing brought these two men together more than a year ago and led to their association in this enterprise. Joined by a sixty-foot rope they dug their way to the summit of Geikie, 11,016 feet high. Five thousand feet of that way was up a nearly sheer wall of blue ice and compact snow, in which the explorers had to cut steps. It took several days to work round from Edmonton to the back of the great crag, and a base camp was established halfway up. The final ascent was on August 5, 1915.

"'We had an ideal day for the ascent,' said Dr. Gilmour. 'We were well above the timber line when we began the last stage of our upward journey. Above us was the compact and glistening mass, and here and there the bare rocks were exposed. — No, we did not carry the American flag and plant it at the top of that lofty peak. There are times when a man may make himself unpopular in a —'"

Listen! Isn't that the telephone? I must answer it.

---

2. In the passage given in **1**, point out any words that may be used as more than one part of speech. Use them in sentences in as many ways as you can.

3. What parts of speech are the words printed in boldface type in the following sentences?

1. **This** is a rare **flower**. 2. **This** plant **flowers** early. 3. The boy who **blacked** the stove was himself very **black** before he finished. 4. **Black** is too somber for you. 5. The Federal **Express** is a very fast train. 6. Will you **express** your thought more clearly? 7. It was begun for that **express** purpose. 8. He will soon **divine** your purpose. 9. That eminent **divine** is long since dead. 10. **Divine** mercy endureth forever. 11. If you will step **inside** I shall show you the decoration on the **inside** of the old bowl. 12. He placed the note **inside** his pocketbook and put the book in an **inside** pocket. 13. We went the **round** of the exhibits. 14. This is as **round** and hard as you could desire. 15. Next year will **round** out the century. 16. The time will soon roll **round**. 17. **Round** us gathered the excited men. 18. I told you for the **very** reason that your plan seemed **very** impracticable. 19. I **fancy** she will regret her act. 20. They are in **fancy** dress. 21. I should not let such a **fancy** disturb me. 22. Fortunately the old **well** was **well** filled with rubbish and she did not fall far; she is almost **well** now. 23. Clear springs **well** up from every side.

Exercise 3

Nouns
Kinds

1. Point out every noun in the following sentences, and tell what kind of noun it is.

1. This collection of Mr. Davidson's recent verse takes its title from that impressive description of the Golden Gate at sunset which is the subject of the first poem. 2. This volume is the first complete record of the events preceding the war. 3. The book begins with a history of the origin and growth of the anthracite coal industry. 4. The teachings of the great Russian philosopher, as presented by Mr. Hall, are today more than ever full of meaning and hope. 5. He exhibits the masterly grasp of detail that comes from the combination of wide knowledge with real historical insight. 6. Deceit and treachery

are foreign to his nature. 7. The youth of the country is the explanation of its lack of development. 8. The youth of our country are its hope for the future. 9. The army was in winter quarters at Valley Forge. 10. The class were interested in the subject. 11. That class is the best I have had. 12. The young of many of these species are extremely delicate.

2. In sentences 7–11 inclusive, above, explain the form of the verb by telling what kind of noun serves as subject.

Exercise 4

Nouns Singular and plural forms

1. Use each of these nouns in a sentence in such a way as to show whether the given form is singular or plural. If any may be either singular or plural, use it in both numbers.

Memoranda, means, news, tidings, propaganda, sheep, species, genera, strata, dogma, dozen, data, hysterics, scissors, errata, deer, odds, molasses, athletics, larvæ, alumni, people, measles, ashes, trousers, fish, oats, oasis, vertebra, goods, bellows, candelabra, suds, thesis.

2. Write sentences using the plural forms of the following nouns, letters, etc. (See **113**, *9.*)

Analysis, chimney, chief, potato, formula, wharf, Mary, penny, syllabus, index, die, crisis, cupful, sister-in-law, Mrs. Brown, Miss Glover, April, July, t, +, 10, valley, roof, ox, man, woman doctor, halo, manservant, torpedo, heathen, radius, moose, mouse, brother, foot, head, knight errant, Lord Justice, toothbrush, mulatto, Englishman, German, genius, genus.

Rewrite the following sentence in such a form that it will contain the plural of the word *of:*

The word *of* appears five times in this short sentence.

3. Write sentences using the singular form of the following words:

Alumnæ, alumni, bacteria, beaux, cherubim, candelabra, errata, Chinese, negroes, oases, phenomena, radii, series, strata, species, theses, vertebrae, nebulas, chrysalises (or chrysalides).

Exercise 5

Nouns Nominative case

1. Point out every noun in the nominative case and explain its use in the sentence:

1. The king eider is a resident of Arctic realms. 2. It is a wonderful country, this rich, fat-soiled land. 3. These old villages are most interesting places. 4. This fountain has been a great pleasure to us, — a constant joy to eye and ear. 5. Sweet bird, thy bower is ever green. 6. That lady is my teacher, Miss Langley. 7. Will you kindly tell me the time, Miss Langley? 8. Her work being finished, Mary came home. 9. O you little scamp, you have hidden my pen! 10. Unhappy man! His only son was killed in action. 11. The ruddy duck, or "dumb bird," the rook of the Potomac region, was formerly a highly prized species. 12. In a ton of coal, perhaps 40 pounds is water, 320 pounds is ash, and the rest mostly carbon and hydrogen. 13. The matter being finally settled, we could turn to other things.

2. In sentences of your own give three examples of each of the following case uses of the noun: subject, predicate, address, exclamation, absolute use.

Exercise 6

Nouns Accusative and dative cases

1. Point out all accusative (objective) and dative (indirect objective) case uses in the following sentences and explain each:

1. The firm offers its representatives special inducements.
2. This experience must have taught the party a much

needed lesson. 3. Never again will they try to make such a man mayor. 4. Girls are taught sewing and cooking in the public schools of today. 5. I am thankful you spared mother that care! 6. We believe this man to be the agent of corrupt forces. 7. We walked many weary miles before we reached the spot. 8. The poor fellow has lived such a life that few pity him now. 9. Will you ask the janitor to save John some excelsior? 10. He was made the recipient of many favors by his grateful friends. 11. They made the former secretary president for the coming year. 12. He gave my father full assurance that he would teach the boys economy both of time and of money.

2. Write five sentences containing both direct and indirect object; substitute a prepositional phrase for the indirect object. Write three sentences containing a dative of reference or concern; substitute a prepositional phrase.

3. Write three sentences containing a noun used as cognate accusative; three containing an adjunct accusative; three containing an adverbial accusative.

4. Write three sentences using a noun, in one as secondary object, in one as retained object, in one as the accusative following a preposition.

5. Write two sentences, using a noun in one as subject of an infinitive, in the other as predicate of an infinitive. In what case are the nouns so used?

Exercise 7

Nouns
Genitive case

1. Explain the following genitives (possessives):

1. We admired the **speaker's** self possession. 2. The **man's** disregard of his **son's** interest was astonishing.

3. The **soldier's** uniform was faded and torn. 4. **War's** influence upon civilization cannot be definitely known. 5. **Dr. Brown's** books are his most cherished possession. 6. The **army's** defeat was attributable to many causes. 7. The **candidate's** election is a triumph of party politics. 8. The **court's** procedure was strictly in accord with precedent. 9. The **river's** depth was great.

In which of these sentences would a prepositional phrase be as good as the case form used, or better? Why?

2. Write sentences using the genitive plural of the following words. (See **113**, *10.*)

Man, child, doctor, artist, ox, fox, horse, tree, flower, sheep, deer, postmaster, councilor.

3. Write sentences using the genitive singular of these words. (See **113**, *10.*)

Ox, deer, child, Lewis, Mr. Ross, Miss Williams, William, Alice, Louis, executrix, lioness, sister-in-law, attorney general, Lubbock and Prather, John Wilkins, Mr. Thomas Jones the lawyer.

Exercise 8

Nouns Case (general)

Name the case of every noun used in the following sentences. Explain the use of each.

1. The teacher gave his class a very hard test in algebra. 2. The new Widener Library at Harvard is an addition of inestimable value to the resources of the university. 3. We must work many hours every day if we are to accomplish the task before June. 4. Poor man! he believes his son to be the instigator of the riots. 5. This action of the directors saved the county the expense of employing special instructors to teach these children the specified subjects. 6. No matter how distasteful Hill's nomination may have been, it seems to have spared the party the humiliation of a defeat at the polls. 7. Men

of France, your country looks to you today to fight the good fight ; to show the world the strength of a nation reborn. 8. He was taught a valuable lesson by this very simple incident. 9. The jury chose Mr. Walton foreman, and made its verdict an example of what offenders should expect. 10. Oh, this terrible war ! what will its results be ! 11. The ambassador was given his passports, much to the regret of his friends. 12. William's treasured camera was given him by his father. 13. The excitement having ended, he grew gradually calmer. 14. War's horrors are unspeakable. 15. Man's inhumanity to man makes countless thousands mourn.

Exercise 9

Write fifteen sentences illustrating different case uses of the noun. Use some nouns in apposition. In what case is each ?

Nouns
Case (general)

Exercise 10

1. Select the pronouns in the following sentences and tell the kind of each :

Pronouns
Kinds

1. I myself have no doubt about it. 2. Here are your books ; who has mine ? 3. The men who have no work are disposed to help themselves and each other as far as possible. 4. This is the same as mine, I am sure. 5. I cannot choose between them ; I shall take both. 6. Whom did you mean ? 7. Any one can tell that. 8. That is a habit of theirs. 9. Whose are these ? 10. This is the book that they bought. 11. Neither can help himself ; both understand that. 12. These are my papers ; those are hers. 13. No one is to blame but him himself. 14. They have injured themselves much more than us.

2. What kind of a pronoun is "them" in these sentences ? Explain its case use in each.

I gave them my order. I helped them.

Why is it wrong to say, " Give me *them* order blanks" ?

3. In the following sentences tell the kind of pronoun printed in boldface. Explain its case use.

1. I **myself** did it. 2. They hurt only **themselves**. 3. He broke it **himself**. 4. They have **themselves** to blame. 5. I allowed **myself** too little time.

Is the use of "myself" correct here: "Myself and my business partner are satisfied" ? Explain why or why not.

Exercise 11

Pronouns Personal

1. In the blanks in the following sentences supply proper forms of the personal pronoun of the first or third persons. See that you make use of both singular and plural forms.

1. —— thought you were ——. 2. —— mistook you for ——. 3. —— believe the culprit to be ——. 4. It is ——. 5. Between you and ——, I am glad it is —— that's chosen. 6. Let's you and —— go early. 7. It is —— three who should be blamed. 8. You should blame —— three. 9. If I were —— I should start at once. 10. John is taller than ——. 11. It is —— who should be commended rather than ——. 12. You should censure —— rather than ——. 13. Mr. Brown says —— boys may use his horse. 14. Mr. Brown will let —— boys use his horse. 15. It was —— whom John called. 16. Everybody was shouting, —— loudest of all. 17. The rain drenched every one, —— most of all. 18. It appears to be ——.

2. Explain the use of *it*, *it's*, and *its* in the following sentences:

1. I am sure it's too early to start. 2. This has been very serviceable but it has outlived its usefulness. 3. It seems certain that he will be defeated. 4. It is sure to rain.

Exercise 12

Pronouns Relative

Fill each of the following blanks with *who* or *whom*, *whoever* or *whomever*, as the case demands. Explain your selection.

1. —— did you see? 2. —— was it that you saw? 3. Will you tell me —— you saw? 4. Is this the boy —— you called? 5. —— was it that told you? 6. Can you tell me —— it is? 7. I shall appoint —— I think to be best. 8. I shall appoint —— I think is best. 9. I shall appoint John, —— I know well. 10. Name the man —— you are willing to trust. 11. —— was it that told you? 12. Did he tell you —— he is, or —— he has served before? 13. I shall ask my brother, —— I know will tell me the truth. 14. I shall ask the one —— I think will do it. 15. I shall ask the one —— I think he meant. 16. I shall select —— is in my opinion the better man. 17. I shall select —— I think the better man.

Exercise 13

Pronouns Possessive, demonstrative

Adjectives Possessive, demonstrative

1. In the following sentences point out all the possessive pronouns and all the possessive adjectives. What is the distinction between them? Point out all demonstrative pronouns and demonstrative adjectives.

1. Yours and mine suit me better than hers. 2. His father is my mother's brother. 3. These are yours; I have theirs. 4. Your books were packed in these boxes; his are in those. 5. Our family is larger than yours; ours has six members. 6. My boat lost its rudder. 7. Give thy thoughts no tongue. 8. Your father is a friend of mine. 9. Do you often have this kind of weather? 10. Where do these grow? 11. I don't know what this is. 12. To thine own self be true. 13. Those people are in need. 14. Why did you do that? 15. These kinds of apples grow in our orchard.

2. Write sentences, using each of the following words as a pronoun and as a pronominal adjective:

His, whose, this, that, these, those, which, what, any, both, another, each, some.

Name the kind of pronoun or pronominal adjective in each case. Explain the case use of the pronouns. Tell what nouns the adjectives modify.

Exercise 14

Pronouns
Number

1. Fill each blank in the following sentences with the proper pronoun, pronominal adjective, or verb. Explain why you use the form you do.

1. Each boy gave —— own version of the story. 2. None of the students —— finished —— work. 3. Every boy and girl must state —— opinion. 4 Everybody present expressed —— disappointment. 5. If any one is opposed to the measure —— should make —— opinion known. 6. If any of the members —— in favor of it —— should so signify. 7. If anybody should ask me, what shall I tell —— ?

2. Fill each blank with a suitable word, — personal or demonstrative pronoun or demonstrative adjective:

1. Yes, both —— kinds of car are satisfactory. 2. Hand me —— two ledgers from the shelf, please. 3. Please recopy —— two pages that I have here ; can you copy —— at once ? 4. I don't care for —— kind of lettuce. No, if you have only —— kinds I shan't buy today. 5. I don't often read —— "best sellers." 6. Will you please repeat the names of —— kinds of limestone ?

What are the mistakes in the sentence: "Do these kind of people annoy you"?

Exercise 15

Pronouns General

In the following sentences point out every pronoun; tell the kind, and explain its case use.

1. The books which you showed him are the same that we used last year. 2. We shall collect all that are ours; if any are still unclaimed you should try to find to whom they belong. 3. I hope my theme, over which I have spent much time, will be satisfactory to you. 4. She indolent! by no means! 5. What did he tell you as to whom he had seen about it? 6. I myself know nothing about it or about any of the plans which he proposes. 7. Who is he? 8. This said, he gave me my book. 9. When they found that he desired the presidency, they elected him to that office without delay. 10. They deceive themselves as to their ability to help each other. 11. He taught me that very speedily. 12. I was definitely promised it. 13. Was the plan yours or theirs? 14. You should spare yourself that! 15. Each of us helped it succeed. 16. Careless me! I have broken my glasses! 17. No one knows this better than he himself. 18. That is surely all there is of it. 19. I expected her to be tired. 20. It is she who, they say, is tired so easily by her work. 21. We want a representative who is highly educated.

Exercise 16

Adjectives Kinds

1. Write a paragraph of about 150 words on some one of the following topics, or one of your own choice:

The Playing of our Football (or Basketball) Team.
Baseball, the American Game.
A Description of an Old Man whom I Know.
The Value of International Expositions (judging from what I Saw of the Pan-American Exposition of 1915).
How I Read the Newspaper.
Why I Read the Newspaper.
How I Spend my Spare Moments.

Underline every adjective in the paragraph and in the title. Tell whether it is descriptive (common or proper) or limiting; if it is limiting, tell the kind.

2. In the following sentences select the descriptive adjectives and tell whether they are adherent, appositive, or predicate. Name the pronominal adjectives; the articles, definite and indefinite; numerals, cardinal and ordinal.

1. The channel contained few dangerous submarine shoals, but the first one we encountered made us anxious, for we believed it to be much nearer than it really was. 2. The water is only slightly tinged with salt and is marvelously clear. 3. The sands, glittering apparently near the surface, may be twenty feet below. 4. Of all its many descriptive epithets, ancient or modern, none has clung with more persistent tenacity than that simple early designation, "fishy" Bosporus. 5. A bright fire made the dull room cheerful; indeed we found it well suited to our needs and for the first time that day we were comfortable. 6. Electric charges and electric fields within and without a hollow closed conductor are entirely independent of one another. 7. Comfortable hammocks with appropriate bedding, two large oil stoves, a thirty-gallon tank filled with pure water, and a long smooth table hinged to the side of our boat were welcome additions to our outfit. 8. The berries of the European holly are of a deeper red and its leaves are more spiny than those of our American variety.

Indefinite article

3. Write sentences using the indefinite article before the following words:

Honor, humble, humorous, university, eulogy, eye, history, historical.

Exercise 17

Adjectives Degree

1. In the following sentences give the positive, comparative, and superlative forms of every adjec-

tive capable of inflection to show degree. State whether superlative forms in the sentences are absolute or relative in their use.

1. Many interesting customs and romantic stories are connected with the use of holly at Christmas time ; some of them are most curious. 2. The European variety is too tender to withstand either the hot sun of our southern summer or the severe cold of our northern winter. 3. Skating was good here last winter, and many young people spent long hours in enjoyment of this most healthful exercise. 4. The most intelligent girl in the class is the taller of the two who are talking to the little boy. 5. I cannot understand how such a well-trained boy can be so thoughtless. 6. The harder the problem the better it seems to him, and this one is most difficult. 7. The most difficult work we have had hitherto is easy compared to this. 8. The worst feature of the case is that fewer capable boys will be satisfied to choose this work, which really is most important. 9. There has not been much money in circulation during the last year. 10. The latest news is encouraging. 11. The next town lies nearer to the ocean. 12. He seems less disposed to work than I expected.

2. Inflect *good, bad, careful, near, little* (in "little aid"), *much, many, ill* (of health), to show ascending degree.

Exercise 18

In the sentences that follow underline all the verbs. Point out in each compound form the main verb and the auxiliary. Point out all infinitives, participles, and gerunds.

Verbs

Compound forms

1. When you write, always be careful to say what you mean. 2. The fields looked green and fresh and gave promise of pleasant days to come. 3. Can you afford to spend your time in sport before you have finished the

Infinitives
Participles
Gerunds

work that was assigned to you ? 4. When you are writing a letter you must take time to make it neat. 5. Lead shot are made by letting molten lead fall from a sieve at the top of a tower into a pool of water at the bottom. 6. I hope that you will grow steadily better, and that your full strength may soon be restored to you. 7. Will he ask about the matter or shall I ? 8. If I were in your place I should do as you are doing. 9. Suppose we have two U tubes, the side tubes of which differ in diameter. 10. If that be all, we do not need to care. 11. When you have finished what you are doing you may try to open the window. 12. Liquids and gases are called fluids because they have no definite shape, but adapt themselves to the shape of the vessel containing them. 13. When he had finished speaking he turned to the man, whom he had always felt to be his friend, and extended his hand ; but it was ignored. 14. Did you believe what he said ? 15. I certainly did not. 16. Water percolates into the crevices of the rocks, freezes, expands, and breaks the rocks to pieces. 17. I shall try to remember what you say, and, if it can be done, I will improve. 18. If the experiment be repeated the same results will be obtained. 19. The clouds are gathering rapidly and rain will soon be falling. 20. Move on, and give others your places. 21. Perish the thought ! 22. Even if I were offered a larger salary I should be compelled to adhere to my decision to resign. 23. We have just seen that if the pressure on the surface of a liquid be increased, the temperature must be raised before the liquid will boil. 24. Digesters are used for extracting gelatin from bones. 25. A body falls freely from rest for 15.6 seconds. Find the final velocity and the distance traversed. 26. May good luck go with you ! 27. I felt exhilarated after my ride. 28. While I stood aghast, my hostess, her eyes fastened on the intruder, felt stealthily for the bell rope. 29. What should you do in my place ? I said I wouldn't reconsider, you know.

Exercise 19

Verbs

1. In the sentences in Exercise **18** tell whether each verb is transitive, complete, or linking; if it is

linking, name and identify the word linked by the verb to the subject.

2. Write five sentences containing linking verbs; do not use the same verb in any two sentences, and use the verbs in different tenses. In each sentence explain the relation of the words joined by the linking verb. **Linking**

3. Write five sentences containing complete verbs. Write five sentences containing transitive verbs. **Complete** **Transitive**

4. Name the kind of verb indicated in each group of sentences, and explain the use of the indicated word or phrase following the verb.

1. The boy **looked mischievously** at me when I called. The boy **looked mischievous**. The boy **looked me** in the eye. 2. Everything, he believes, merely **seems**; nothing **is**. Nothing **is certain**. This fact **seems certain**. 3. The mystery **remained a mystery**. He **remained longer** than I. 4. The old house still **stands there**. That **stands to reason**. He **stands his ground**. He **stands firm**. He **stands firmly** by his friend. 5. The boat **came safe** into port. The boat **came safely** into port. 6. The sick man **lay quiet**. The sick man **lay quietly** on the cot.

5. Think of two verbs other than those appearing in the preceding article (**4**) that may be transitive or complete or linking according to their use. Use them in all these ways in sentences. Explain the construction of any words or phrases that immediately follow the verbs.

6. In the sentences you wrote in **3** above, were the transitive verbs in the active or the passive voice? Change their form from active to passive and *vice versa*, and explain any resulting changes in the sentence. **Voice**

Exercise 20

Verbs
Principal parts

1. Write sentences using each of the principal parts of each of the following verbs. State whether the verbs are regular or irregular.

Bake, begin, believe, blow, break, call, come, dip, do, draw, drive, eat, fall, fly, freeze, forget, get, give, go, grow, know, lay, lie, love, prove, push, ride, rise, run, start, see, set, sit, show, steal, swim, take, wake, write.

2. Write sentences using each of the principal parts of each of the following verbs. Notice which have *a* in the past tense.

Drink, shrink, sing, sting, string, cling, sink, slink, swim, sling.

3. Fill the blanks in the sentences below with proper forms of the verbs given in **1**, above. Omit *it* if the verb does not require an object, and add any words necessary to make complete meaning.

I —— (it) now.	He —— (it) now.
I —— (it) long ago.	He —— (it) yesterday.
I have —— (it) often.	He has —— (it) frequently.

In the same blanks use the phrases "lie down to rest" and "lay the book on the table," with necessary changes in the form of the verb. In the same way use "set the table," "sit quietly," and "do my work."

4. Fill the blanks in the following sentences with proper forms of *rise* and *raise:*

1. At what hour do you ——? 2. At what hour should you have ——? 3. Had the sun —— when you ——? 4. What does this farmer —— in this field?

5. What was the crop he —— last year ? 6. Does yeast make the bread —— ? 7. What is it that —— the bread ? 8. Have you —— the window ?

5. Write a short narrative, for instance, an account of a young man's first day of work at laying a stretch of track, or an episode occurring in a school or college building; use each of the verbs, *begin, lie, lay, sit, set, raise, rise, ring, run,* in as many different forms as you can without making your story sound unnatural.

Exercise 21

Verbs
Mood, tense, number, person, voice

1. In Exercises **15** and **18** give the mood, tense, number, and person of each verb. Give the voice, if the verb is transitive.

2. Write twelve sentences illustrating the proper use of the auxiliaries of the future tense; make use in your sentences of all three persons in both numbers. What part of the verb is used with these auxiliaries to form the future?

Tenses
Auxiliaries

3. Write sentences using the verb *ride* in the present perfect, past perfect, future perfect, past future, and past future perfect tenses, indicative mood, active voice. In each form that you have written, point out and identify the form of the main verb, and its auxiliary or auxiliaries.

4. Write sentences containing the verb *forget* used in the first person singular, in every tense of the indicative mood, passive voice. In each compound form, name and identify the form of the main verb and any auxiliaries used with it.

Progressive, interrogative, and emphatic forms

5. Write sentences containing the progressive forms of the verb *to eat*, in the present tense, indicative mood, active voice. Explain the composition of the compound forms.

6. Write four sentences containing interrogative and emphatic forms of the verb, using present and past tenses of each. Explain the composition of the compound forms.

7. Explain the composition of the compound forms in the following sentences and tell what ideas the auxiliaries express. Name any other auxiliaries expressing the same ideas.

1. I can tell you. 2. You may give it to him. 3. You must be more careful. 4. He might have been hurt. 5. He must have known all about it. 6. They could have chosen no better place. 7. You should have known that.

Exercise 22

Verbs *Shall* and *will*

1. Fill the following blanks with *shall* or *will*. In any case where either may be supplied, supply each, and explain the difference in meaning between the two sentences.

1. I —— try to please you. 2. I —— succeed in spite of your fears. 3. They —— do cheerfully what they are told to do. 4. They —— do what they are told to do, no matter how they may resist. 5. I think he —— refund the money. 6. —— we see you tomorrow? 7. —— you dine with us on Sunday? 8. We —— continue our plan, cost what it may. 9. You —— return the book or I —— report the case. 10. You —— have the pictures you ordered, this evening. 11. I promise that they —— not repeat this offense. 12. I —— be glad to see him. 13. I —— see him whenever he wishes it. 14. —— you miss your friend? 15. I —— go, and nothing

—— dissuade me. 16. I —— come of age tomorrow. 17. I —— be forced to dismiss him. 18. —— I call him for you ? 19. We fear we —— be attacked.

2. Explain every use of *shall, will, should,* and *would* in Exercise **18.**

3. Fill the following blanks with *may* or *can.* If both may be used in any case, explain the difference in meaning. **May and can**

1. You —— sit up a short time tomorrow. 2. —— I have your book ? 3. You —— write a letter now. 4. All who —— demonstrate the proposition —— step to the board. 5. You —— do better work than this ! 6. Where —— we meet you in the morning ? 7. How —— you bear such pain ! 8. How long —— you read at one time ?

Exercise 23

1. In the following sentences point out all infinitives. If they are transitive, tell whether they are active or passive. Tell whether they are present or past. Explain the use of each one in the sentence. If any is modified or followed by an object, explain the construction. **Verbs Infinitives**

1. To tell what I saw would be to break my promise. 2. I want to start early. 3. To think that he has gone ! 4. I cannot believe it. 5. The man is about to drive away. 6. It is easy to be mistaken. 7. I am careful not to be misunderstood. 8. I am eager to go. 9. To be frank with you, I do not know how to proceed. 10. To have hoped so long, only to be disappointed in the end — that was the pity of it ! 11. I believe the man to be an impostor. 12. There is a time to sow and a time to reap. 13. He came to ask about you. 14. The children are to dance in the play. 15. He was taught to use his time wisely. 16. We bade him return quickly.

17. You may go. 18. His father taught him to speak the truth. 19. I can manage my own car now. 20. You must be careful. 21. There was nothing to do but to accept the situation. 22. Do you hear the wind blow? 23. Let him sleep on! 24. He has houses to let and to sell. 25. The decision to refuse our plea was final.

2. Write sentences using the infinitive (1) as subject; (2) as predicate; (3) in apposition; (4) to denote purpose; (5) as an adjective modifier; (6) as direct, secondary, and retained objects; (7) in exclamation.

3. Write two sentences in which a verb (such as *to think, to believe*) is followed by an infinitive clause. In one of them let the infinitive of the infinitive clause be *to be*. What is the case of the subject and of the predicate of the infinitive?

Exercise 24

Verbs

Participles

1. In the following sentences select all the participles. Tell the kind of each, whether active or passive, present, past, or perfect. Explain its use in the sentence.

Gerunds

Point out the gerunds. Explain how they differ from the present participle.

Note particularly any present or past participles that have lost their verbal force and are used as pure adjectives; also any gerunds that no longer have verbal force, and are used as pure nouns.

1. Held closely to facts, he gave incriminating answers. 2. I am tired of writing. 3. He has been working too steadily. 4. Clearing the land was the task assigned to him. 5. The boy you see working so diligently at his

task is the one selected for the honor. 6. Having counted the ballots, we announced the vote. 7. Counting and tabulating the votes consumed much time. 8. Thinking, feeling, and willing are mental processes. 9. I am thinking over the matter proposed by you. 10. Thinking men agree upon the point. 11. I am willing to go. 12. Building seems to increase as the season advances. 13. Willing hands were stretched to aid him. 14. Drawing and painting are taught here. 15. Having been asked the direct question, he had to tell the truth. 16. Asked the question, he replied promptly. 17. We need educated men to deal with our released prisoners. 18. Rising quickly, he drew aside the curtain. 19. Being detected in the act, he could not disavow it. 20. We watched the men building the boat. 21. Mining is a dangerous occupation.

2. Write six sentences, each containing the past participle of some irregular verb. Explain the use of each participle in the sentences.

3. Write six sentences, each using a participle as a descriptive adjective; in one let it be closely adherent to the noun; in another, make it appositive in relation to the noun; in the third, use it as predicate adjective. Use both present and past participles.

4. Write a sentence in which a participle is followed by an object; one in which it is modified by an adverb.

5. Write five sentences, each beginning with a participial phrase. When such a phrase, beginning a sentence, is not used absolutely, what part of the sentence must it modify?

6. In the following sentences select from the suggested words the proper one to use in each blank, and explain your choice. If in any case either word

will serve, explain the difference in meaning. (See **14**, p. 65.)

1. We cannot be sure of (his, him) coming. 2. He regrets (Mr. Andrew, Mr. Andrew's) being offended. 3. I noticed (him, his) stumbling as he came toward me. 4. Instead of (me, my) looking down on them, they were looking down on me. 5. He pictures the (victory, victory's) being achieved by a superdreadnought of the air.

After making your choice, try to improve the sentence by recasting it.

Exercise 25

Adverbs

1. Point out the adverbs in the following sentences. Tell what part of speech each modifies, and what idea each expresses. Indicate those that are derived from adjectives. Compare all that are capable of expressing degree. Point out any interrogative adverbs. What ideas do they express?

1. Obviously, then, the difference in temperature is inversely proportional to the pressure. 2. How can we tell that very many gases may be readily liquefied? 3. The water of Niagara rolls forever downward. 4. The scene was undoubtedly a very painful one for the woman, who, however, stood silently and patiently awaiting the long expected blow. 5. Why did they come so early? 6. Can you not guess? 7. Chemistry, which was exceedingly difficult for me then, rapidly grew easier as I advanced further, and I was soon able to enjoy it most heartily. 8. How did he accumulate so much more property than his equally thrifty neighbors? 9. Hydrogen, as previously stated, may be considered a very nearly perfect gas. 10. The heavily burdened man, physically tired and mentally overwrought, wandered aimlessly about. 11. Ordinarily this kind of instrument is not well adapted for use in these exceedingly delicate measure-

ments. 12. Here, in the very shadow of that eternally snow-capped crest, the valleys are literally carpeted with most brilliantly colored flowers. 13. When I saw her last she seemed much less feeble. 14. How fast the leaves are falling now! 15. Next, Camus, reverend Sire, went footing slow. 16. He walks slowly and feebly. 17. It is too early to speak definitely.

2. Explain the uses of *there* in these sentences:

1. Only a few people were there. 2. There were giants in those days. 3. There are many people needing our aid this winter. 4. He looked eagerly ahead; there stood the old inn, just where he had dreamed of finding it! 5. Once there stood an old inn on this spot.

Exercise 26

Prepositions

1. In Exercises **24, 1** and **25, 1** name all the prepositions and the substantives used with them to form prepositional phrases. In what case is such a substantive?

2. Point out the prepositional phrases in the following sentences. In every case show to what part of the sentence the preposition relates the substantive that follows it in the phrase.

1. From an optical point of view the eye is a photographic camera with an automatic adjustment for focus, and with a sensitive plate that reports images directly to the brain. 2. The old clock on the landing of the stairs ticked away the seconds of that dreary day, during which it seemed to me the rain never for a moment ceased to beat against the windows of my room. 3. In accordance with my instructions I searched with strict scrutiny the features of everyone who was in the room when I arrived or who came into it after that time. 4. Because of neglect of his early opportunities he is now in a position most embarrassing to him. 5. He is far above the average

boy in intelligence but is too indolent to profit by this great natural advantage. 6. All natural colors may be obtained by the combination of the three primary colors in varying proportion. 7. My home is only two blocks beyond that tall building. 8. I was about to speak when the man just behind me began to address the chair.

Exercise 27

Conjunctions

1. Name the conjunctions in the following sentences. Tell the kind, and show that your answer is correct.

Does the conjunction in each case connect words or word groups? If it connects groups of words, point these out and explain the nature and use of each.

1. It has stormed all day, but it is growing clear now. 2. Men and women alike are responsible for this condition and suffer alike from its disadvantages. 3. The price of raw cotton and of cotton goods has advanced rapidly. 4. You must do your work or you will be excluded. 5. The retreat was hasty but orderly. 6. Both teachers and pupils enjoy an unexpected holiday. 7. Neither chemistry nor physics can be mastered without interested attention and hard work. 8. Not only cold, dry glass and porcelain, but also paraffin, sulphur, and mica are good insulators. 9. I am either ill or overtired. 10. We neither welcome these overtures nor reject them. 11. This action affects the iron or carbon embedded in the zinc. 12. He is well known in our own country and in Europe.

Coördinating

2. Write three sentences in which both subject and predicate consist of more than one part, connected by coördinating conjunctions. Use both simple and correlative conjunctions. What kind of subjects and predicates are these?

3. Write three sentences in which two or more simple sentences are united by coördinating conjunctions. What kind of sentences have you written? What are the parts called? What kind of clauses are they as to rank in the sentence? As to their relation to each other?

4. Use the proper form of *to be* (*is*, *are*, *were*, *am*, etc.) in the following blanks: **Correlative**

1. Either ammunition or the money to purchase it —— what we must furnish. 2. Neither your friend nor these of mine —— opposed to the measures. 3. Either your brother or we —— at fault. 4. Either they or your brother —— at fault. 5. Neither he nor his sister —— at home at the time.

5. Vary the forms of sentences 2, 3, and 4 given in **4** above, in a way to avoid the use of a verb with subjects of different person and number. Which form is better? (See **30**, *2*, NOTE, **31**, pp. 79, 80.)

Exercise 28

Name the interjections and any other words, phrases, or entire sentences that are strongly exclamatory. **Interjections**

1. Gentlemen, it is true ; alas! too true. 2. Oh, what a pity ! its wing is broken. 3. To horse, my brave boys, and away ! 4. Well ! This is a pleasure ! 5. " Here ! Quick ! upstairs with you," I cried. 6. " Ay ! " said I to myself, " they may well think that ! " 7. Surrender ? Never ! 8. On with the dance ! 9. Up, my men, up ! the foe is upon us ! 10. So you won the first prize, eh ? I thought, ahem ! that I myself would carry that off ! 11. Who ? That ! That my brother ? No ! 12. Teddy shouted to the house : " Oh, look here ! Our mongoose is killing a snake ! "

Exercise 29

Substantives

1. What parts of speech are usually included under the common name *substantive?* Can this term be applied to any other part of speech or to groups of words? If so, under what conditions?

2. In the following sentences, point out every substantive and explain fully how it is constituted and how it serves in the sentence.

1. I, my lords, am at your service. 2. To say anything more would be a mistake. 3. The house in which he lives is a fine example of early New England architecture. 4. Lamenting your failure will do no good; what you must do is to work. 5. My desire is to speak the truth. 6. When should the word *oh* be followed by an exclamation point? 7. Blessed are the pure in heart. 8. From the sublime to the ridiculous is often only a step. 9. "Pretty is as pretty does" is a familiar saying. 10. The whys and wherefores were fully discussed. 11. *Ill* may be either an adjective or an adverb. 12. The loving are the daring. 13. We are about to start. 14. The distance from my home to yours is not long.

Exercise 30

Sentences Clauses

1. Write a simple sentence with an unmodified subject and an unmodified and unextended predicate. Expand the sentence by using an adjective to modify the subject and an adverb to modify the predicate. Substitute phrases for the adjective and the adverb. Has the form of the sentence been changed?

2. In the following simple sentences, substitute clauses for the indicated words or phrases, and explain the resulting difference in the form of the

sentences. What kind of sentences are they after the substitution?

1. **Wealthy** people are often importuned for aid. 2. **After his recovery** he took up his old pursuits. 3. I fear **his removal** from his position. 4. John, **my elder son,** is at Yale. 5. The **first-named** book is unfortunately inaccurate.

3. Write two sentences containing a clause used as subject; two containing a clause used as predicate nominative. Are these sentences simple or complex? Give reasons for your answer.

4. Write three sentences, each of which shall contain two coördinate subordinate clauses.

Exercise 31

1. Tell, of each of the following sentences, whether it is simple, compound, or complex. In compound and complex sentences point out the different clauses, explain their rank in the sentence and tell their kind, in relation to each other.

Sentences

Simple, compound, complex

1. He is not working today; he is ill. 2. He is not working today, because he is ill. 3. He is not working today, but he is not ill. 4. The injured man was given prompt attention. 5. He has, in consequence, suffered little inconvenience. 6. The man who was injured was given prompt attention and, in consequence, he has suffered little inconvenience. 7. When I entered the room, you were just leaving it. 8. I entered the room at that moment, but you were just leaving it. 9. When the time comes the money will be ready. 10. I am undecided which book to keep. 11. The evil that men do lives after them. 12. I shall report such cases as I am able to find. 13. The signs whereby we recognize the case are plain. 14. If you wish it, I shall go. 15. Select the

courses that you like best. 16. Do you know any place where we may get food ? 17. I do not know who the man is. 18. I could see no excuse except that he might be ill. 19. I shall ask William, whom we all trust. 20. I shall ask William whom he saw. 21. I cannot repeat the story, which was told to me in confidence. 22. The fact is that he did not do his duty. 23. It was a time when war clouds were gathering. 24. Since the report was published, many new complications have developed in the situation. 25. That riches have wings is often demonstrated. 26. He does not understand why we sent for him. 27. The people whose homes were destroyed are suffering. 28. Can you see the board from where you sit ? 29. He greeted whomever he met. 30. We approve the principle whereon this action is based. 31. Do you know who did this ? 32. I shall remember what you say. 33. I sent for you that you might see for yourself. 34. Do you know whose house this is ? 35. He was vexed that his advice was disregarded. 36. Can you tell me when he will arrive ? 37. The belief that he is guilty is very general. 38. He found it to be what he had been looking for.

2. In the foregoing sentences point out all the subordinating conjunctions. What is the function of the subordinating conjunction? Point out all other words used in these sentences for the same purpose. Tell what part of speech each is.

Exercise 32

Clauses

1. In the sentences given in Exercise **31**, point out every adjective clause and every adverbial clause; tell what word each modifies; point out and explain the word introducing the clause.

Point out all substantive clauses, and explain their use in the sentence; indicate and explain the words which introduce them.

2. Write six sentences, using an adjective clause in each. Use both pronouns and adverbs as introductory words.

3. Write six sentences, using an adverbial clause in each. Let them illustrate the use of the subordinating conjunction, the relative adverb, and the relative pronoun as introductory words.

4. Write sentences using a substantive clause in as many case uses as possible. See that you use examples of all kinds of connectives that may introduce such clauses (subordinating conjunctions, interrogative pronouns, and interrogative adverbs).

5. Write a sentence in which you use an infinitive clause after a verb of *thinking, knowing,* or similar meaning. Substitute for this clause a substantive clause introduced by *that.* Explain the differences in the structure of the two clauses.

Exercise 33

Sentences Complete subject, complete predicate

In the following sentences point out the complete subject and the complete predicate. Select in each case the subject substantive and the predicate verb, and tell whether these are simple or compound. Point out all words, phrases, and clauses which in any way modify or extend the meaning of either subject substantive or predicate verb.

1. Many a brave soldier of every one of the warring nations has surrendered his life for the best interests of home and country. 2. The old man chose his words carefully, and spoke in a simple and quiet manner. 3. Grass and leaves, which radiate heat freely, cool rapidly and soon bring the air near them below its dew point. 4. The

heavy, dark oak door swung slowly upon its great hinges and an odd figure stepped over the threshold. 5. He called long and loud, but no one came to his aid. 6. Careful experiments show that different metals expand at different rates. 7. All other streams of this great basin drain to the Po. 8. No words can describe its beauty, no photograph do it justice. 9. A feather and a coin fall with exactly the same rapidity in a tube from which the air has been drawn. 10. The river, rushing swiftly toward the town, turns abruptly at this point and hastens to the sea. 11. A shot from the cabin in the clearing, a swiftly descending object, and a heavy thud, announced a welcome addition to our larder. 12. In what direction did Peary's compass point when he reached the North Pole ?

Exercise 34

Sentences for general review

1. It is a noteworthy fact that the two soldier types that emerged from the English Civil War victorious over all others were the Cromwellian Ironsides and the Scotch Highlanders. 2. I told him with indignation that her beauty was the least part of her goodness. 3. In June, 1806, near Beachland, Kentucky, Thomas Lincoln married Nancy Hanks, daughter of Joseph Hanks of Elizabethtown, in whose shop he had learned his trade. 4. This being provided, he grew very wise, and told us clearly and candidly that we were both very foolish. 5. The boy who has not wandered through the woodlands, and gathered and eaten the smooth, sweet fruit of the black haw has missed one of the pleasures of boyhood. 6. Do your eyes tire easily when you are working, reading, or studying by artificial light ? 7. Franklin was not satisfied, because the rods did not reach into the thunder clouds and might have been electrified in some other way. 8. But suppose they wish to use this territory not as a passageway back to their ships, but as a rallying ground for the resumption of hostilities ? 9. Do not make the mistake of thinking that dew falls ; it is produced by the condensation of moisture upon surfaces which have been cooled to a temperature below the dew point. 10. Here we could see the king's troops had been

very recently, for their fires were still smoldering ; but they had been summoned away by a night attack of the rebels. 11. When a train is leaving a station, it is gaining speed ; when it is approaching a station where it must stop, it is losing speed. 12. Our sense of dryness and dampness does not depend upon the absolute amount of water vapor in the air. 13. An aquatic plant that grows in great abundance on the margins of Lake Tacarigua is being used as raw material in a paper factory started at Maracay. 14. Some of the coal-tar dyers, calling at the booth, saw for the first time a piece of logwood, a material once to be found in every dye house. 15. This was Greek and Hebrew to me ; but I had other matters to consider, and the first of these was to get clear of that city. 16. The primitive suspension bridge across the Spokane at the Narrows was built for the use of the Indians, who cross from the reservation to the Indian school established on the site of old Fort Spokane. 17. Cromwell and the Puritans had gone too far, and the reaction which developed against them was violent. 18. What becomes of the mechanical energy which is exerted in rubbing a glass rod to electrify it ? 19. Do you think he has any idea of why we are here or of what our purpose is ? 20. Glass vessels are easily broken when they are suddenly heated or cooled, because the brittle glass cannot support the internal strains produced before the temperatures of the outer and inner portions have become equalized. 21. This experiment shows that the water which is pressing against the bottom of the piston is pressing against everything else that it touches. 22. What happens when a moist wind from the ocean strikes a mountain range ? 23. A dog which comes when its name is called, which runs away from the whip, which welcomes its master joyfully, has associative memory. 24. Some fishes evidently possess memory ; in sharks, however, its existence is doubtful. 25. The colonies had been too long separate ; their characters, their tempers, their interests, were too diverse and distinct ; they were unused to coöperate and unwilling ; they were too slow to learn submission in anything. 26. No word is oftener on the lips of men than Friendship, and indeed no thought

is more familiar to their aspirations. 27. Each community has a rule by which it judges what is conducive to the common happiness, and it insists, by force if necessary, upon the observance of that rule.

Grammatical Notes

Adjective

A **descriptive adjective** serves to describe an object; its duty is not primarily to define or identify. (He is a *careful* driver.)

A **limiting adjective** (sometimes called *definitive*) limits or defines the idea expressed by the noun, answering the question *who? which?* or *what?* (*A* car, *the* car, *this* car, *two* cars, *what* car, *any* car, etc.)

Adjectives are **adherent** (sometimes called *attributive*), **appositive**, or **predicate adjectives**. If **adherent**, the adjective is closely and directly attached to the noun, usually preceding it (a *cautious* driver); if **appositive** it is added, with looser connection (a driver, *cautious* to the point of timidity); if a **predicate adjective**, it is closely connected with the subject by means of the verb (if the driver is *cautious*).

Clause

Clauses are **principal** (i.e., *independent*) or **subordinate**. Clauses of the same rank are **coördinate**; they may be either principal or subordinate.

Adjectival clauses are **descriptive** (also called *nonrestrictive* or *additional*) if they serve the purpose of a descriptive adjective (Friday morning, *which was pleasant*); they are **determinative** (or *restrictive* or *limiting*) if they serve the purpose of a limiting adjective (the first morning *that is pleasant*).

Subordinate clauses in general are either **essential** to the expression of the thought of the principal clause (The plea *that she is young* is weak) or **nonessential** (This plea, *that she is young*, is weak).

An **infinitive clause** is a clause consisting of an infinitive with an accusative subject, which may replace a *that*-clause as object of verbs like *wish, advise, order, believe,* and *declare.* (Do you command *me to go?* They de-

clared *him to be sane.* COMPARE: Do you command *that I go?* They declared *that he was sane.*)

Conjunction

Conjunctional uses of adverbs and pronouns

The principal **subordinating conjunctions** are *although* (*though, while*), *as if, because* (*as, since*), *if, lest, than, that, unless, whether* (*whether . . . or*). Adverbs and pronouns similarly used, to introduce subordinate clauses, are as follows: **relative adverbs** (also called *conjunctional adverbs, adverbial conjunctions*), the main ones being *after, as, before, how, since, till, when, whence, whenever, where, wherever, while, whither, why;* **interrogative adverbs**, *how, when, whence, where, whither, why;* **relative pronouns**, the main ones being *who, which, what, that, as* (in *such* or *same . . . as*); **interrogative pronouns**, *who, which, what.*

Degree of adjectives and adverbs

Adjectives and adverbs are inflected to show degree (often said to be *compared*). The **superlative** is **relative** when it expresses the highest degree among a certain group (the *wisest* of our leaders); it is **absolute** when it means "in an extremely high degree." (She is *most* annoying!)

Observe that not all adjectives and adverbs are capable of change to show degree; note *round, perfect, useless, unique,*[1] *universal,*[1] etc.; *very, too, completely,* etc. It is allowable, however, in any but the most precise speech, to say "*more* perfect," "*more* complete report," because, within a field approximately perfect or complete, as the case may be, we can recognize different degrees of approach to perfection or completeness.

Gerund

The **gerund** is the form in *-ing* sometimes called a *verbal* or *participial noun*, or classed as an infinitive.

Sentence

Every sentence is (1) **affirmative** or **negative**, (2) **declarative** or **interrogative**, (3) expressive of a certain mood idea, such as fact (**indicative**), command (**imperative**), or wish (**subjunctive**), (4) **exclamatory** or **nonexclamatory**. Thus "Don't do it!" is negative, declarative, imperative, exclamatory (to judge from the exclamation point); "Shall he do it?" is affirmative, interrogative, imperative, and exclamatory or not, according to the amount of feeling put into the question.

[1] **See in list of misused words, 6.**

Substantive

Any word or word group expressing or naming something about which an assertion may be made is a **substantive**. The following italicized elements are substantives: The *doctor* and *I* arrived together. *Seeing* is *believing*. *To see* is *to believe*. The *young* are impatient with all *hows* and *whys*. *From here to town* is only a *mile*. *That he's sincere* is evident.

Note the various kinds of substantives in the following examples of case uses.

Substantive case uses

The case uses of the substantive[1] are:

Nominative.

Subject: *You* are kind. *To err* is human.

Predicate: He is our *guest*.

Nominative of address (equivalent to *vocative* case use): *Father*, I didn't do it!

Nominative of exclamation: The *rascal!* *To catch* him!

Nominative absolute: *Aid* having arrived, I left.

Accusative (objective).

Direct object: Will they expel *him?* I advise *waiting*.

Secondary object: He taught me *Physics* (or *to play* tennis).

Retained object: I never was taught *Physics* (or *to play* tennis).

Cognate accusative: He dreamed a hideous *dream*.

Adjunct accusative: They made him *spokesman*.

Subject of infinitive: You think *her* to be pretty?

Predicate of infinitive: You think him to be the *murderer?*

Accusative of exclamation: Oh, lucky *me!*

Adverbial accusative: I walked four *hours*.

Accusative with a preposition: I insist on *voting* for *him*.

Dative (indirect objective).

Indirect object: Give *me* the catalog.

Dative of reference or concern: Build *us* a bridge here.

Genitive (possessive).

Genitive of possession: This is *Martin's* room.

Genitive of connection: The *law's* delay is responsible.

Subjective genitive: *John's* decision pleased me.

Objective genitive: *John's* election pleased me.

[1] In accordance with the report of the Joint Committee on Grammatical Nomenclature (*Journal of Proceedings and Addresses*, Nat. Educ. Assoc., 1913, pp. 315–354).

Verb

A verb, according to its use in a given sentence, is **transitive** or **intransitive**; an intransitive verb is **complete**, i.e., complete in itself, neither directly affecting an object nor serving as a link, or it is **linking** (also called *copulative*), connecting a predicate nominative or a predicative adjective directly with the subject. (See **25**, p. 74.) Note that one verb may be capable of all three uses:

He *grows* wheat. (Transitive.)
How fast he *grows!* (Intransitive, complete.)
He *grows* tiresome. (Intransitive, linking.)

Tenses

The following tenses require definition:

The **past future** (see **33**, *9*, p. 87) expresses an action that is to occur in the future as viewed from a past standpoint. (I *felt* then that he *would speak* today.)

The **past future perfect** expresses an action that is already to be finished at some point in future time as viewed from a past standpoint. (I *knew* that by this time he *would have* long since *arrived.*)

Special conjugations

The verb has the following special conjugations:

The following forms use the auxiliary *do* in the present and past:

Emphatic: I *do* agree, I *did* agree.
Interrogative: *Do* I understand? *Did* I understand?
Negative: I *do* not care, I *did* not care.

The **progressive conjugation** is as follows: I *am* coming, I *was* coming, I *shall be* coming, etc.

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